

DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMING TECHNIQUES SERIES

No. 4

**PROBLEMS OF
SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING**

With special reference to Asia and the Far East

REPORT OF A GROUP OF EXPERTS

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UNITED NATIONS

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ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR ASIA AND THE FAR EAST —
Bangkok, Thailand

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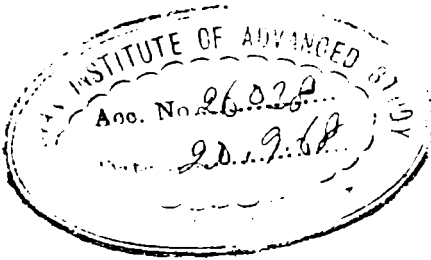
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P R E F A C E

This report on problems of social development planning was prepared by a Group of Experts on Social Development Planning which met at ECAFE headquarters in Bangkok, Thailand, from 9 to 18 April 1963. The Group was sponsored jointly by the United Nations Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East (ECAFE), the United Nations Bureau of Social Affairs, and the United Nations Bureau of Technical Assistance Operations (BTAO), in collaboration with the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and the World Health Organization (WHO).

This was the first meeting of an Expert Group on Social Development Planning held under ECAFE auspices. Its purpose was to consider practical methods and techniques of social development planning, with particular reference to the education, health, housing and social welfare sectors. These four sectors were selected for discussion by the Group, as inter-related sectors of great importance to countries of the region. Their selection did not imply any prior conclusions regarding the priorities that should be attached to them within any overall economic and social development programmes, nor did it suggest that the interactions among those are necessarily more significant than interactions between any one of them and other social or economic sectors.

The Group was composed of ten experts: (1) Mrs. Yah-Chuan Wang, Director, Department of Secondary Education, Ministry of Education, China: Taiwan; (2) Dr. D. K. Malhotra, Joint Secretary, Planning Commission, India; (3) Mr. H. D. Nargolwala, Housing Adviser, Department of Works and Housing, Ministry of Works, Housing and Rehabilitation, India; (4) Dr. M. Makagiansar, Deputy Minister, Ministry of National Research, Indonesia; (5) Mr. Constantin Alexan Mejloumian, Chief, Manpower Section, Social Affairs Division, Plan Organization, Iran; (6) Mr. Hideo Ibe, Chief, Office of Programme Planning and Evaluation, Ministry of Health and Welfare, Japan; (7) Dr. M. Shamsuddin, Deputy Director of Health and Chief of Health Section in the Planning Commission, Pakistan; (8) Mr. Nicanor Y. Fuentes, Chief, Social Development Branch, National Economic Council, Philippines; (9) Mr. Nikolay I. Malov, Chief, Health Sub-Division, State Economic Council of the USSR; (10) Mr. Everett W. Reimer, Adviser on Social Development to the Co-ordinator of the Alliance for Progress, AID-Department of State, USA.

The meeting elected Dr. D. K. Malhotra as Chairman, Dr. M. Makagiansar as First Vice-Chairman, Mrs. Yah-Chuan Wang as Second Vice-Chairman and Mr. Nicanor Y. Fuentes as Rapporteur.

In addition, the meeting was attended by experts nominated by the International Labour Organisation (ILO), the Food and Agricultural Organisation of the United Nations (FAO), UNESCO, WHO, and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF). A number of officials from the ECAFE secretariat as well as a representative of the United Nations Bureau of Social Affairs participated in the meeting.

The experts participated in the meeting in their personal capacity; and the meeting was conducted in an atmosphere of informality, and free and frank interchange of views in this important new field took place. The Group was divided into four working parties respectively to deal with planning in the education, health, housing and social welfare sectors.

The work of the Group of Experts on Social Development Planning constitutes an important contribution by ECAFE to evolve suitable programming techniques for balanced and integrated economic and social development of ECAFE countries, in keeping with the proposals of the Secretary-General of the United Nations concerning the United Nations Development Decade. I hope that the work initiated by this Expert Group will be found useful by Member Governments, and others interested in the problems of social development.

A selected number of working papers used at the meeting have been published in the United Nations *Economic Bulletin for Asia and the Far East*, Vol. XIV, No. 2, September 1963. I believe that these papers and the present report by the Expert Group should prove useful to economic and social planners of the ECAFE region.

On behalf of the United Nations, I wish to express my deep appreciation of the contributions made by the experts to the challenging and pioneering work concerning social development planning. I also wish to thank the Governments and institutions with which the experts were associated for their readiness to release them from their normal duties to undertake this important task. I am also very grateful to the United Nations Bureau of Social Affairs and the Bureau of Technical Assistance Operations as well as the specialized agencies for their assistance and contribution to the work of the Group of Experts on Social Development Planning.

U NYUN

Executive Secretary

Bangkok,

3 July 1964

Chapter I

PLANNING FOR THE EDUCATIONAL SECTOR

Introduction

1. In January 1960 the Regional Meeting of Representatives of Asian Member States on Primary and Compulsory Education, comprising representatives of the 17 Asian Member States of UNESCO, adopted a resolution which has since become known as the "Karachi Plan". This resolution, calling for the attainment by 1980 of free and compulsory education of at least seven years' duration, was later endorsed by the General Conference of UNESCO. In April 1962, a Meeting of Ministers of Education of these States considered the progress to date, and discussed ways and means of implementing the Karachi Plan in future. In their final resolution, the Ministers made the following points:

"We have heard and examined the reports from the 18 Asian States, and have been impressed with the resolute efforts of these countries to implement the Karachi Plan, during the two years which have elapsed since its formulation. Although we are at various stages of educational and economic development, most of us hope to achieve the target of at least seven years of primary education by 1980, some of us will achieve it earlier, while others will complete a first phase of 4-5 years compulsory schooling within this decade. Under the circumstances, educational and economic, prevailing in our countries, this flexible approach and application of the Karachi decisions to our countries is considered a wise procedure. . . .

We have noted the heavy financial provisions made by each country within its national plan. . . .

We are forced to choose between rapid quantitative expansion embodied in the Karachi Plan and required by the right of all to education, and restricting that right, in order to maintain and increase the quality of our educational system, which in itself is a costly undertaking. . . .

As an Asian inter-governmental meeting, we have seen for the first time that education is not only the right of our peoples, not only a never-ending source of individual satisfaction, it is equally a factor which contributes directly to the economic growth of our individual countries. We now realize that properly planned at all levels of education, including adult education, and fully integrated into national development programmes, education will accelerate the rate of

economic growth of all our countries during the current decade—a growth rate urgently needed by our people, and which in turn conditions the extent to which we can expand our educational systems. . . .

After taking stock of our varying present situations, we have decided that Asian countries should move by stages to invest 4-5 per cent of their Gross National Product in education by 1980, provided their rate of economic growth as individual countries can afford it. . . .

After careful study and review, we have concluded that the Karachi Plan is an essential first stage, but only a first stage, in the development of our countries. It must be extended to cover all levels of education—primary, secondary, higher and adult—in each of our countries. Such a comprehensive educational programme needs to be completed by being integrated into the overall national plan of each country. . . .

In making this decision to extend and complete the Karachi Plan, we are conscious of the great importance of planning and of the use of adequately tested educational planning techniques. . . .”

This resolution may be taken as a statement of the basic objectives of educational programmes for the Asian Region.

The present status of educational planning

2. The situation regarding educational planning in Asia varies from country to country. By and large, however, the countries can be grouped into three broad categories: (a) those which have fairly well organized machinery for national development planning; (b) those which have a central organization for putting together plans drawn up by various ministries, without any attempt at integration in the form of a national perspective plan, and (c) those whose plans are drawn up by the ministry of education in an *ad hoc* way without any attempt being made to devise a national development plan or even an overall plan of educational development with definite targets and long-term projections. In the second and third categories, the drawing up and administration of the plan is a single continuing process carried out by the same authority. The main difference is that, in the first category, the central planning body is responsible for preparing the education plan in consultation with the ministry or department of education; in the second category the ministry or department is left to itself to devise its own plan within the national target; and in the third category, it is left free to base the plan on its own objectives and targets within the limits of the budget.

3. The sector of education which, under the influence of the Karachi Plan, all Asian countries without exception are making efforts to develop in a planned way is primary education. The progress already made in

implementing the Karachi Plan has been indeed remarkable in almost all the countries included in it.¹ In fact, some countries are progressing well ahead of the target of 20 years and a few are even planning to have compulsory education of 8 or 9 years instead of 7. Three countries have almost reached the 7-year target, while three countries may require a longer period than the one set by the Karachi Plan.

4. However, there is a keen consciousness of the need for overall educational planning in relation to social and economic development as expressed at the Tokyo Meeting of Ministers of Education held in 1962. Accordingly UNESCO in collaboration with ECAFE, ILO, FAO, WHO and UNICEF has planned to make available the service of two teams of experts, consisting of a development economist, an educational planner and a statistician. During June 1963—June 1965 these teams are expected to visit all the Asian countries for a period of 2-3 months each, to assist in the projection for each country of two education pyramids, taking into account future manpower needs and the other demands for education and their cost implications: one is a minimum to be attained with available national resources in relation to economic possibilities and the second a maximum to be reached with the proper channelling of external assistance, whether bilateral or multi-lateral. The national projections will be put together with a draft Asian model showing the regional picture and plans before the next meeting of the Asian Ministers of Education to be held in December 1965, with a draft plan representing the extension and completion of the Karachi Plan. The ILO and WHO have for some time been giving technical assistance to countries of the region in assessing their technical, scientific and professional manpower.

5. While the education sector has in recent years shown considerable progress throughout the ECAFE region, owing partly to the adoption of educational planning by several Asian countries, the rate of growth in education has been inhibited by several factors. One is the high rate of population growth and the age structure of the populations in countries of the ECAFE region. The population structure in Asia is generally young; in most countries some 45 per cent of the total population is usually under 20 years of age, and persons between 5 to 19 years constitute approximately 35 per cent. The rate of population growth is accelerating, with a rapid decline in mortality and with the traditional pattern of high fertility of Asian societies remaining more or less constant. Thus the trend is towards an even higher proportion of persons under 20 years of age. The educational planner has to face an increase in the school-age population which is more rapid than general population growth.

¹ Afghanistan, Burma, Cambodia, Ceylon, India, Indonesia, Iran, the Republic of Korea, Laos, Malaya (now Malaysia), Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Thailand and the Republic of Viet-Nam. In the revised plan as recommended at Tokyo, the Republic of China and Japan will be included.

6. Secondly, although Asian countries are showing steady economic progress, as illustrated by the average annual rates of growth in real aggregate product ranging from 2.6 to 9 per cent during the nineteen-fifties, in most countries it has been barely sufficient to keep ahead of the population increase. Under the circumstances, allocations for development in the social sectors, (in which education is at present included) have followed the time-worn pattern of residual financing, the social sectors being considered only after the claims of the economic sectors have been reviewed. This treatment is particularly inappropriate for education because of its importance in the production function. In its broad sense, including all aspects of training, education is a factor of production, which is both essential if the target product-unit is to be attainable at all and to some extent a substitute for capital and raw materials. In almost all the Asian countries, the allocations for educational planning have been substantially lower than the needs, particularly as seen by the educational planner.

7. The Asian educational planner also faces the problem of how to strike the right kind of balance within the "education-mix". The existing educational systems produce persons whose qualifications do not always match the needs of economic and social development. The requirements for specialized personnel and personnel of certain types remain unfulfilled while there is an over-abundance of others whose educational qualifications do not fit the productive activities of society. Moreover, rapid changes in economic structure and geographic mobility, resulting in heavy urbanization, have created uneven pressures on the education system. However, in some countries of the region increasing attention is being given to planning a closer relation between education and vocation. Efforts are being made to ensure that the education system produces, within its total output, prevocational and vocational training in the form and at the level needed to provide the productive manpower required by the development programmes. This undertaking requires the identification of types and levels of education with the corresponding vocational skills. Studies now in progress will reveal the links between education and vocation and thus facilitate more effective use of projections of manpower requirements in planning education.

Techniques of planning and programming education

8. We have already noted that in Asian countries a better educated population is regarded as an end in itself, and the achievement of stipulated standards of education within a decade or two is among the stated goals of their development programmes. With respect to these goals, programming must relate mainly to the timing or phasing of the approach to them. Decisions as to phasing must rest on careful analysis of the costs of alternative timepaths for educational expansion. While costs may be expressed in money terms, ultimately the costs consist in the slower rate of movement towards other stipulated ends (target levels of health, housing, and social welfare services, for example).

9. A clear statement of all objectives of national development policy is a pre-requisite for further programming. Many countries include in their policy objectives higher levels of per capita income, reduced unemployment, and improved distribution of income among individuals, groups, and regions. Some add to the list improvement of the balance of payments. Others indicate the socio-cultural values they wish to maintain or establish. Expanded education must be appraised together with all these goals, as well as with health, housing, and social welfare services, in order to establish the irreducible minimum targets for education as an end in itself.

10. The minimal programme will itself make a contribution to the achievement of other goals, while competing with them for allocations of fiscal and physical resources. Beyond the minimal programme, additional education projects must be appraised one by one, in terms of the net contribution to the other goals of national development policy. It is primarily in this phase of education planning that the techniques of overall development programming can be applied to the education sector.

11. The techniques for integrating education with economic and social development are still crude, and more research is needed before adequate methods of programming education in a development context can be evolved. Several possible approaches are discussed briefly below.

12. In these matters it must never be forgotten, both as regards the educational system itself and as regards method of planning, that it is necessary to build on or improve existing situations and it is not possible to make an entirely fresh start. All the methods briefly described below are hampered by the difficulties involved in forecasting the demand for education. In all the approaches, some kind of measurement or assessment is required even to establish priorities for projects within the education programme. Problems of measurement of the benefits of education are particularly formidable. These particular problems however, do not need solution where the demand for education is a non-substitutable derivation from a given development goal, or from a development plan already determined.

(a) *The cost-benefit approach*

13. A theoretically perfect approach to comparison of cost and benefits would include both educational inputs and educational outputs in the "input-output matrix" of the economy as a whole. The value of education as an end in itself, quite apart from its contribution to increasing output of other goods and services (and to other factors in the level of living) would be treated as a part of the benefits. In addition, investment in education would be considered together with inputs of labour, raw materials, and capital equipment in the production of other goods and services. In choosing both the product-mix (the amounts of all goods and services to be produced) and the appropriate technology for producing each type of goods and service

in the product-mix, education inputs would be considered together with inputs of other factors of production. Textiles, for example, can be produced with more or less "education-intensive" techniques, higher degrees of skill being substituted for more raw materials, capital equipment, or unskilled labour, just as the technique may be more or less capital-intensive. Similarly, some products are inherently more "education-intensive" (petrochemicals) than others (rice). Consequently, required education inputs should be considered simultaneously with all other costs in determining returns to investment in various kinds of education, and in comparing returns on investment in education with returns on other forms of investment. The total size of the education budget will then be established by expanding investment in education until returns on further investment in education falls below the returns on other forms of investment.

14. No serious problems arise with regard to measuring the costs of education. Teachers' salaries, supplies, equipment, etc., can be included as costs in terms of actual expenditures. Some complications arise in distributing the cost of buildings throughout the life of the building, but these are the same for education as for other sectors of a development programme. More serious difficulties arise in determining the opportunity cost of keeping children in school rather than releasing them to the labour force, but these problems are not insoluble.

15. The real difficulties, of course arise in the effort to measure returns to investment in education. The returns to an additional unit of investment of a certain type (one more year of primary education or in an agriculture college, for example) consists of the value of this unit of education as a "consumer good", plus the increase in total output of the economy that it yields, directly and indirectly. Conceptually there is no difficulty in measuring both the direct returns from education and the increase in output of other goods and services which it permits. The real difficulty is that with techniques and data presently available neither direct nor indirect returns can be measured with any precision.

(b) *Education and income*

16. In default of such a theoretically perfect approach, various approximations to it have been suggested. One of these is to assume that differences in income are a close approximation to differences in contribution to gross national product, and to correlate income with the amount of education of various types. It is then assumed that differences in life-time earnings are the result of differences in educational background. Putting these two assumptions together, a rough measure of the contribution to total production of additional pupil-years of education of various kinds can be obtained.

17. There are obvious defects in this approach. One is that income is not a perfect measure of contribution to total output. Questions of monopoly power, parasitism and special privilege arise. The other is that differences in income do not result from differences in educational back-

ground alone, but also from native ability (intelligence) and special privilege. Some efforts have been made to separate the contribution of education as such to national income, taking account of the impact on income of intelligence and privilege. One approach assumes that the relationship between the privilege and intelligence factors is approximated by the ratio of enrollment at any grade of school to the total population in the corresponding age group (drop-out rates). That is, it assumes that children drop out of school either because they do not have the intelligence to continue or because they cannot afford to continue. Those who remain in school are either intelligent, privileged, or both. This variable also takes account of differences between income and productivity, to the extent that such differences are also a reflection of the relationship of privilege to intelligence. Clearly, serious conceptual problems arise here, and the data needed to use this approach are not yet available. These facts, however, should not discourage social scientists and governments from undertaking the research necessary to permit more accurate measurement of cost-benefit ratios in the education field at some future date.

(c) *The techniques*

18. The approaches to planning and programming education in relation to economic and social development which are currently in use may be summarized as follows:

19. *The 'social' method.* The first of these approaches, which may be called 'the social method' is that in general use, but is scarcely a method at all. We give it as a starting point from which improvements must be devised. This method projects educational needs in terms of the current demand for education at the different levels on the basis of population increase, age distribution, the prospective rise of national income, long-term social goals and estimated consumer's preferences for education. Among such goals and preferences are universal literacy, universal compulsory primary education, the progress of the country's culture and religious life. The stress is upon education as social infra-structure for development purposes, and as an end in itself. This is the traditional approach, and may work satisfactorily in high-income countries, although even in these, concern over flagging rates of growth and ever increasing competition in export markets is leading to increased emphasis on the contribution of education to technological progress and productive efficiency.

20. *Another traditional* approach is based on the fact that the main link of education with economic development is through the knowledge and skills it produces in the labour force, i.e. its manpower effects. To the extent that the educational system produces qualified people in the right numbers and places, the major part of the economic and social contribution of education planning is achieved. The educational system, however, has also to provide for people not in the labour force, and these methods alone will not establish total educational requirements.

21. Nevertheless at some stage of educational planning, and particularly in shorter term planning related to vocational training, projections of manpower needs are basic. At the present stage of technical experience in educational planning, some use of longer range manpower forecasting is necessary; there are already indications that developing techniques (some of which are listed here) will provide broader measures of human resource allocation but, meanwhile, the best possible estimate of manpower requirements must be obtained for present use.
22. Various methods exist of estimating future manpower requirements and the demand they will make on the education system. But four difficulties hamper this approach. First, there are obvious difficulties in making accurate manpower forecasts beyond short-term periods of 5 to 8 years. The time perspective required by educational planning as a whole is 15 to 20 years, though it is possible to influence over shorter periods the supply in the "pipe line". Secondly, the educational component of different occupations changes with technological progress and the rise of educational standards. Thirdly, the occupational needs of the economy are not the whole of society's needs for education. An addition has to be made for women and girls who do not work, and for the supplementary amount of education which a country requires to fulfill its cultural, political and social goals. It is also necessary to ensure that educational output will grow faster than demand to the degree required to stimulate growth, without creating problems of unemployment. The educational plan must also provide for turnover of employment and continuous adjustment between the educational system and the socio-economic environment. Full account must be taken of the "wastage" involved in various educational systems, as well as of students switching in mid-stream, students and parents' preferences, locational disequilibrium of supply and demand, and adjustments required by technological change.
23. These necessary additions mean that a great deal of "guesstimating" is involved as in the case of the other methods in producing educational targets.
24. This approach just described is imperfect for other reasons. First, it leaves out of account the value of education viewed as equivalent to a type of "consumer goods", so to speak. Second, the product-mix itself should not be determined irrespective of educational requirements for production of various goods and services. The composition of the target product-mix, and of the investment programme undertaken to achieve it, must depend in part on the relative cost of the various types of educational programmes needed. In short, investment in education and in all other sectors of the development programme should be determined on the basis of their interrelationship.
25. *The third method* is to relate the stock of educated people and the flow of children and students completing education at the different levels

directly to the national output of goods and services without passing through the intervening stage of making manpower forecasts. It is possible to set up a series of linear equations which relate the stock of persons who have completed a given level of education, and the number of students at each level, to the aggregate volume of production. These equations will show how the structure of the educational system should change with different growth rates of the economy. One difficulty in this method is that assumptions have to be made about teacher-student ratios and about the adequacy of the relation of the education 'mix' to the product 'mix' at the base from which the projection is made. If these assumptions are incorrect, they will invalidate the conclusions. Further, the differences of rates of growth in the different economic sectors, and increases of productivity, need to be included; the range of assumptions as to the technical co-efficients is very wide. None the less this method, used with well-informed judgement, is a useful exercise to be set beside the other approaches.

26. A further difficulty common to both the manpower planning and the input-output approach is the assumption that a given output requires a fixed volume of manpower with fixed amounts of education and training. The fact is, however, that considerable latitude exists for substituting of capital for manpower in general, and for substituting additional education and training for manhours. A given output may be produced with a small number of highly trained workers or a larger number of less trained workers. It may even be possible, through automation, to produce it with a smaller number of less highly trained workers. In short, the choice of technology and its implications for education form a major aspect of development programme; so does the choice between more education and training and less employment, or less education and training and more employment in each sector.

27. The broader the categories of output, and the broader the definition of educational inputs, the less fixed are the relations between them and the wider the area of choice. In some countries in the ECAFE region the data, skilled mathematical statisticians and computing facilities available would not permit computation and projection of relationships among large numbers of output categories and large numbers of education projects. In such cases, the choice of parameters to be used for projection—a choice which is a policy decision and not a matter of statistical analysis alone—is more important than the projection as such.

28. *The aggregate method.* This tries to relate educational needs to the whole demand of society for education rather than to the level of output, and is based on norms and patterns which emerge from an empirical study of the educational situation in countries at different stages of development. Among them are (a) the proportion of GNP devoted to education globally and (if possible) by sector. (b) the proportion of public expenditure devoted to education and its different sectors, (c) the proportion of overall investment devoted to education, (d) the proportions of the population enrolled

at the different educational levels, (e) the above information corrected by estimates of wastage, (f) the proportions of the school age and student population enrolled at different levels. Patterns of educational development in relation to overall development can be seen by setting these coefficients against indices of economic growth and social attainment. Social indices can be used with the help of ranking techniques. To these indications must be added data on what appear to be irreversible trends, e.g. the movement from primary to secondary and tertiary occupations, and estimates of the relative rates of growth of more highly qualified manpower in relation to the total growth of the labour force.

29. A number of problems arise in respect of the interpretation of the coefficients listed. For example, the proportion of GNP spent on education will vary with the age composition of the population and not reflect an equality of burden. Another variant strongly influencing the comparison is the ratio of per capita teachers' salaries to per capita income, as the country differences are wide and the great proportion of educational cost is made up of teachers' remuneration.

30. Fifthly there is the *integrated manpower and educational planning and human resources assessment approach*. This can be set out in a series of steps starting with population growth and the economic perspective and adding the other key factors progressively as follows:

1. Projection of the future size and age composition of the population.
2. Assessment of the economic perspective over a period of 15-20 years.
3. Translation of the demands of the economy and its structural changes into manpower terms.
4. Establishment of the educational component of the manpower needs disclosed.
5. Additions of education for consumption and social purposes to the extent not already covered by 4 in accordance with cultural, political and social goals.
6. Additions to cover turnover, switches of students in mid-stream, students' preferences, friction between the educational system and the environment (economic, social and locational).
7. Analysis of the supply side in terms of existing educational system and its logistics, and the constraints on its expansion arising from the nature of the form of education (feasibility of creation of different pyramids in specific time series, time taken for teacher training etc.). The results of this step have to be "fed back" to the earlier steps and may influence the assumption on which steps 2., 3., 4., and 5. are built.

8. Estimation of actual movement into educational and occupational channels and assessment of required incentive to improve it.
9. Establishment of the comparative cost and efficiency of different techniques of education, The results of these last two steps will also have to be "fed back".

31. To a great extent, it will be seen, the educational demand is derivative and dependent upon the choices made as regards the overall plan or perspective. To the extent that areas of substitution and choice arise, the resources for education enter into allocation procedures. These areas arise primarily under steps 5 to 9.

Strategy of development of human resources

32. Education is one of the main sources of human resource formation. Other sources are health measures, manpower, employment and training factors, science, and means for spreading and increasing the velocity of circulation of knowledge through libraries, mass communications etc. The strategy of human resource development consists of integrating these factors with general economic and social development planning. It takes into consideration such factors as the scale of development feasible considering the availability of specialized manpower, the scale of development needed to absorb the backlog of unemployed and the new entrants to the labour force, the pattern of investment priorities envisaged in the plan and the broad economic, social and educational goals of development planning. The fact is recognized that it is not possible to forecast the long-term manpower and educational needs of the country except within the context of the overall economic and social development plans or broad economic and social goals in view. The focal point of human resource power strategy is that the educational and training facilities provided are as well adapted as possible to the needs of economic and social development. The most commonly adopted basis for projecting of manpower requirements is the availability of economic indicators, such as sector production targets or inventory of development plans and projects, if there is a plan, or the projected trends of sectoral production if there is no plan. This approach has been adopted with varying degrees of success in the development plans of many countries of this region.

33. While as we saw above the existing methodological basis of making the short and long-term forecasts of manpower and educational requirements leaves much to be desired and consequently they can indicate only the broad orders of magnitude, nevertheless they constitute the basis for guided action and purposeful programming. Further, the reliability of these estimates could be improved by periodical revisions or "rolling" forecasting. Periodic revision would in any case be necessary, as manpower developments are influenced by factors not easily predictable or subject to complete control in a dynamic economy. On such an extended basis, the manpower and

human resource assessment approach goes far beyond a statistical analysis of present and future demand for human resources. It deals with broad programmes of vocational and technical training and general education and with integrating the strategy of human resource development with general economic and social development planning.

Fiscal and physical limitations on education

34. Measurements have been made for the United States and some European countries of the increase in man years and capital and natural resources compared with the expansion of gross national product over a long period. They indicate that the increase in inputs has been small in comparison with the growth of the gross national product, thus demonstrating that the bulk of improvements in production and levels of living is due to a "residual factor". It is then assumed that this "residual factor" is substantially accounted for by education in the broad sense, including all kinds of technical training, and including also the technological progress that comes from investment in education. This approach leads to the conclusion that returns to investment in education are so high that education programmes should always be as ambitious as possible, given the limitations of available human and material resources in the education sector.

35. We can assume that it is virtually impossible to spend too much on education, provided it is efficiently programmed, so as to assure an optimal allocation of education resources among various uses, and provided that educational standards are maintained or improved while opportunities for technological advance in education are seized. Each country starts with a given demographic situation, and with a given stock of educational facilities in the form of teachers, teacher-training capacity, classroom space, textbook production, and the like. Education planners, starting from these data, can determine how much is possible in the way of expansion of educational output, within the limits set by the human and material educational resources that will be forthcoming over the planning period.

36. The Ministers of Education Meeting in Tokyo stated that: "At this stage, we do not call for financial assistance for the primary education programme, except in the area of teacher training. For our overall educational programmes we have considerable foreign exchange costs and we, most of us, face a serious gap between what is physically possible educationally and what is fiscally possible. In these two areas, financial assistance in the form of grants and loans will be needed from bilateral governmental and private sources, and from the International Development Association of the IBRD."

37. The question as to whether additional financial resources, foreign or domestic, will permit a more rapid achievement of educational goals is one that should be very carefully analysed, country by country. It is likely that in most countries of the region the physical limitations are more

serious than the purely financial ones. Deficit financing is no stranger to the region; the question is only how much the money flow can be expanded without causing inflation that will make the economy unstable, destroy incentives to work, bring balance of payments difficulties, and retard development. If indeed the education sector has immediately available to it additional building space and trained personnel, for which there is no alternative productive use, expansion of the educational programme will be essentially costless. Any inflationary impact of providing the funds to utilize the available physical resources will be far less serious than the waste involved in not utilizing them. In most countries, however, accelerating the education programme would mean withdrawing physical and human resources from other productive uses. The result would be an immediate reduction in output of other goods and services and a downward adjustment of other targets in the development programme. The increased output of other goods and services through expanded education will occur only after a substantial time lag. In these circumstances expansion of the education programme without offsetting curtailment of other outlays and consequent sacrifice of other goals will be doubly inflationary, expanding the money flow and reducing the flow of goods.

38. It is in this context that the role of foreign capital assistance to education can best be appraised. The direct foreign exchange requirements of education are small, probably not more than seven per cent of the total. Thus, the provision of foreign exchange for education will not provide the physical and human resources needed for expansion.

39. However, capital assistance provided for the overall development programme can be used to offset the inflationary impact of transferring physical and human resources—if they are available—from other uses to education. It might, in some cases, take the form of surplus commodities which, added to domestic supplies, will keep prices down. It may take the form of raw materials or capital goods which must otherwise be produced with domestic physical and human resources, permitting these resources to be released to the education sector. In other words, foreign capital assistance for the overall development programme permits the local currency budget for education to be increased without sacrificing of other goals or serious inflation. It should be reiterated, however, that even the most generous budget for education will not permit expansion of educational output faster than the growth of physical and human inputs in the education sector.

40. Foreign aid enters into the programming of education in one other way. Insofar as it takes the form of visiting professors, teachers, technicians, equipment, etc. it adds to the total real resources available for education over the planning period, and so affects the scale of the education programme that can be carried out. Generally, however, the real resources for education composed as they are largely of teachers and buildings, are not transferable by foreign aid.

Problems of educational planning

41. The methods and procedures of educational planning proper insofar as they require the use of statistical and analytic techniques, are similar to those used for any aspect of development planning. There are, however, specific problems arising from the nature of the educational process itself. For each of the methods of approach described above there will be particular points to be watched; some have been noted already. The following paragraphs suggest ways of attending to some questions and identifying some difficulties that may arise in practical situations.
42. In elaborating plans and programmes, the planner comes very quickly in contact with questions on the structure of the education system. Substantial changes in required output may require corresponding amendments to the form of the system and the planner should seek early advice on changes which are educationally desirable and which will at the same time achieve the desired purposes. Decisions on this point will establish one of the most important bases for his final cost estimates.
43. Planning involves provision for change. In all development planning the improvement of productivity is an essential aim; this is equally true of educational planning. Wide-ranging research and experiment are at present being directed to increasing productivity and it will be necessary for the planner to seek the most likely forms of changes in systems and methods which he should take into account in his plan. A question requiring nice judgement is the stage or time at which changes can be introduced and the rate at which these changes may be able to improve productivity. The types of change which can be made are suggested by the following examples:
- (a) *Wastage*
44. Elimination of unnecessary wastage to reduce unit cost per school graduate. Some degree of wastage is unavoidable and indeed may be socially desirable. In a society where a high degree of free choice is left to the individual, he may elect forms of education which do not contribute to increased production or else for which he is not qualified or suited. Some wastage of this type must be expected. On the other hand, a system which allows children to leave school after only one or two years instruction, which permits retardation through inefficiencies of teaching or organization, or which otherwise slows up the rate of education, is clearly one for which remedies must be sought and action taken.
45. Wastage is a serious problem and it considerably reduces the effectiveness of educational expenditure. Wastage can occur in the educational process as, for example, when a child is withdrawn from school before the completion of formal courses of instruction or when he is retarded at school, and also after the completion of the educational process as, for example, when an educated person remains unemployed or when he has no, or only partial, use for the skills and understandings acquired at school.

46. At the primary stage, the premature withdrawal of children has been a major block in the way of rapid expansion of educational facilities envisaged in the Karachi Plan. The single most important cause of this kind of wastage is the poverty of the people of this region. A child may be withdrawn because he is required to work for the family at home or to augment the family budget, or because the parents just cannot afford his schooling expenses. Social factors such as the unwillingness of the parents to educate girls in the same schools as boys, or to educate them at all also take their toll; however, it is reassuring that in many areas, changes in this particular regard are occurring fast. The ineffectiveness of the educational system resulting from factors such as the poor equipment of the teachers and their inability to work in the interest of the students, low economic status of teachers, lack of interest in the job and doing outside work to augment income, thus sapping energy, defective system of examinations resulting in excessive retardation rates, paucity of textbooks and other educational materials, uninspiring curriculum, also contribute significantly to wastage in primary education.

47. Hence, in any scheme of educational expansion at this stage due notice has to be taken of these defects. Of the three main sets of causes, educational defects are the only ones over which the planner or educator has some measure of control. Steps can also be taken to lower the social hurdles—as for example by developing suitable programmes of adult education aimed primarily at changing the traditional ideas of the community—but it is important to realize that, in practice, this process cannot be accelerated beyond a certain limit and that a realistic plan leaves no choice but to come to terms with the problem. The most serious problem, however, is the distressing poverty of the people, which in many ways is beyond the immediate remedial scope of educational planning. So long as the economic condition of the masses does not improve substantially, programmes of education expansion will continue to operate under certain limitations, yet education is one of the main instruments by which poverty can be defeated.

48. It is also important to remember that the problem of wastage is not peculiar to the primary stage. Secondary and higher education in many countries are also confronted with the same problem. The number of dropouts and failures in examinations—conducted by institutions internally or by public authorities—will testify to its magnitude. There is a tendency in many quarters to blame this unsatisfactory state of affairs on the supposed or real dilution of quality due to unprecedented expansion of facilities at the post-primary and post-secondary levels in recent years. Consequently, one often hears the plea for qualitative improvement or consolidation as against physical expansion. The educational planner has to give due regard to the main facts of the situation and recognize that the expansion policies at these levels have to be more articulately related to employment opportunities at the school and college levels. To ignore this will aggravate the already concern-giving situation.

49. The whole question of educational wastage in Asian countries needs close study. The contribution of education planning to the development of the human resources in this region will depend not a little upon seriously coming to grips with this problem. UNESCO and the regional governments can usefully collaborate with one another in developing suitable designs for the study of the problem in different parts of the region.

50. Meanwhile, it is well to recognize that improvement of the situation, since it involves human factors (particularly the teachers) cannot be very quickly brought about; the wise planner will be realistic in his estimates of the time required for this.

51. On the other hand, the wastage referred to above is so great, and so concentrated among the underprivileged children who constitute the bulk of the school population in the region, as to raise doubts whether traditional techniques will ever succeed in providing these children with education. The additional capital outlays required by new educational techniques must be weighed against the possibilities they offer for saving money and human resources.

(b) *More productive design and use of physical capital*

52. In most school systems today school buildings, laboratories, equipment and other facilities are idle for a part of the time when they could be in use. Alternative forms of school organization should be sought in order to allow the optimum use of the resources. The planner can expect somewhat more rapid improvement in this area if there exist administrative services which can tackle the problem efficiently. Important problems of school design and location also arise.

(c) *Use of new techniques of teaching*

53. Research should guide the planner in the way he can introduce qualitative and quantitative improvements through the better use of radio, film, television, programmed learning and other involving techniques. In some of these, however, he will need to assess how far he can expect a fairly considerable increase in capital expenditure (e.g. television, "teaching machines") to be effective in terms of increased output.

(d) *Improvement of supervisory and advisory services*

54. The efficiency of an education system depends in the last resort on the efficiency of the teacher and of the teaching methods he employs. His performance and status will be influenced considerably by the effectiveness of the administrative framework in which he works and by the assistance he gets from supervisors and advisors. In the Asian region there tends to be a lack of such services and the educational planner will recognize that investment in this area is likely to increase productivity in a significant

manner. He will realize that the growth of the education system will require provision for possible increase in the administrative services; indeed he may have to propose major changes in those processes in the interests of increased efficiency; hence, he will have to examine the suitability and need for developing research and statistical services as a basis for changes within the system and for control over them.

55. Not the least of the preoccupations of the planner is the choice to be made between improvements in quality and increases in quantity. Qualitative advances require increased investment in teacher training, teaching materials and text books, equipment, etc., and to the extent that this is necessary the possibilities of quantitative expansion are reduced. At all costs, however, quality norms must be maintained; accordingly the planner will have to seek the advice of experienced educators so that the best compromise can be achieved. In his planning he will need to establish two or three alternatives for expenditure on qualitative factors—say, a minimum, a reasonable maximum, and a compromise—in each case showing their effect on quantitative development, and allowing the choice to be made by the appropriate government authority.

56. The study of relative costs has an important bearing on productivity. The planner should undertake, by use of the techniques of linear programming or by other means, a study of relative costs of different forms of school organization which take into account school size, location, staffing patterns, building standards and other cost factors. He will then choose as the basis for his planning the cheapest form of organization which is consistent with educational standards laid down by the authorities. The task of making such comparative studies may have to be given to an internal bureau if the skills required are not available in the planning secretariat.

57. In some societies, the process of overall development may be impeded by the reluctance of students to accept certain types of education which would lead to occupations with limited social prestige. Beyond the degree of freedom of choice required to meet the demands of a free society, such a situation will upset the best of planning. The situation can be corrected, however, while still maintaining the freedom of individual choice, by introducing a system of incentives. The planner will seek the advice of sociologists, experienced educators and suitable organizations in selecting the forms of incentives likely to be effective. In the simplest cases, all that may be necessary is moral persuasion or the use of propaganda with parents and children. Often, however, it will be necessary to introduce economic incentives—scholarship systems, high rates of pay in priority vocations, and so on. One system which can be effective if the national educational policy allows it, is to restrict entry to schools which give prestige, possibly at the cost of detriment of production, by means of examinations or other selection mechanisms. The use of incentives will usually involve additional costs and so must be the concern of the planner.

58. The planner cannot commence his work until he has established, or has received directives concerning the standards he must apply. He will meet such questions at every step of his work; however, a few of them, required for all plans, will illustrate the type of decisions required. Above all, he must know the pupil/teacher ratio decided upon for each stage of the education system. He must know when legislation is likely to be introduced for compulsory education and between what ages and, particularly, at what time enforcement will be introduced. What building standards and equipment norms are to be used? To what extent is the national development plan likely to lead to inflation or increased living cost and so add to salary costs? Similarly, what increases in real wages must be taken into account? To these and similar questions the planner must seek answer from the appropriate authorities before he commences his work.

59. In order to establish his cost estimates, the planner will go some way into detailed programming even though the details may not appear in the final plan. In any case, at a later stage of implementation he will, to some extent, be involved in project planning. Almost all education at some stage becomes associated with institutions and it should be part of the equipment of the planner to be able to undertake project evaluation and appraisal. In this process he will be required to assess the justification and feasibility of particular projects from both the economic and educational points of view. He will need to seek advice on the design of buildings, setting, layout, legal requirements, place in the total system, relationships with other institutions, input and output of students, staffing, equipment and other relevant factors. On the basis of all available information he will make recommendations concerning the justification, feasibility for and cost of the project, presented in summary form in the plan. Some suggestions as to the details of a method of project appraisal will appear in a chapter of a UNESCO document to be published in 1963.

60. It should be noted particularly that a planning office in newly developing countries will be called upon to undertake project formulation and evaluation as the basis for requests for assistance from international financing agencies. All such agencies agree that a project is likely to attract assistance to the extent that it is related to the educational plan as well as to the national development plan, and to the extent that its justification and feasibility are established.

61. A continuing concern of the planner must be the potential resources of the system to achieve the rate of educational growth which the plan is advocating. For example, the ability to achieve universal primary education within a given period of years requires the training of teachers at a determinable rate. Is this rate feasible in terms of facilities, available trainees, etc.? It also requires increases in the resources for administration, supervision, research, servicing. The planner will have to assess the extent to which demands can be met in these and all other planned situations. An earlier section concerning physical and fiscal limits to investment is relevant to this question.

Planning machinery in the education sector

62. Planning can be effective only to the extent that the machinery is fully incorporated into the administrative structure of the Government. It is impossible to lay down exact specifications for planning machinery, since, in each country, the organization of national administrative services will determine the form of the planning structure. The following general principles may help to guide the establishment of an educational planning service.

- (a) A separate planning secretariat is necessary. It should be clearly identifiable within the administration and its functions should not be carried out by the same personnel as those concerned with the implementation and day-to-day operation of programmes.
- (b) The planning secretariat should report directly to the person or body making decisions on the plan, for example, to an educational planning commission or to the Minister of Education if no planning commission exists.
- (c) The planning secretariat will make use of services such as research offices, statistical bureaux and documentation services, which already exist in the Ministry of Education. This will allow the planning secretariat to be kept to a reasonable size and will avoid duplication of effort.
- (d) The planning secretariat should have easy access to advice from educators, sociologists, statisticians, economists, public and private sectors of the community and industrial, commercial, agricultural and social groups.
- (e) The planning secretariat should be closely linked to the central planning office. This important liaison requires the presence of an economist in the former and of an educational planner in the central planning office.
- (f) Similarly, the planning secretariat has to maintain close administrative ties with ministries and other institutions whose programmes are concerned with education or training, or whose activities depend on the outputs of the educational system.
- (g) In federal countries, the state ministries or Departments of Education will require similar forms of organization and there will have to be close contact with the central authority. The extent to which this type of organization is repeated at lower levels will depend upon how far the administration of the educational system is decentralized.

63. A secretariat, established on this basis, undertakes the preparation of plans and presents alternatives to the decision-making authority. The planning units themselves do not prepare the final plans until the necessary choice between alternatives has been made by the responsible political or administrative authority.

64. It is also desirable to establish machinery which can evaluate plans and so allow adjustments and improvements to be made during the plan. Close relationships between planning, implementation and evaluation must be maintained at all stages by the use of suitable liaison and co-ordination machinery.

Research and statistics for educational planning

65. The educational planner in most Asian countries is seriously handicapped by the inadequacy of his tools. He is rarely supplied with data needed to survey the present position of education and plan its development. Improvement of this position requires that the existing status of statistical and research services be reviewed and, if necessary, revised. Research and the collection, analysis and appraisal of statistical information must be continuous activities. Immediate and urgent action is required in two directions. First, collection and analysis of minimum statistical and related data. The more important types of information required include statistics on population, manpower, national income, public finance, economic development, schools and educational finance. A suggested detailed list of the data required is set out in the annex of this report.

66. Secondly, the collection of such data will necessitate the establishment of proper statistical services. In countries where services already exist, they may need to be strengthened or broadened in the light of their planning requirements.

67. Educational research is already being undertaken in such areas as curriculum development, methods of teaching, measurement of achievement, preparation of well-guided textbooks and other teaching aids, tools required for guidance, matters of importance for planning, and so on. The intention here, however, is to call attention to some areas which have a prior claim because of their special significance for development. The subjects noted below are illustrative of activities of urgent importance.

68. The problem of wastage and the need to promote research leading towards its solution have been mentioned above. Research in this key area cannot only increase the efficiency of the education system, but also suggest invaluable opportunities for integrating educational development with economic and social development.

69. Expert and lay opinion are agreed that for the rapid overall development of this region, the greatest emphasis has to be placed on the development of prevocational, vocational and technical education. Two most important questions to consider are:

- (a) What techniques can be developed to train the vast manpower required for the economic and social development of this region in the shortest possible time? This is a particular area where perspective planning can assist, but it must be supplemented by detailed planning on a short-term basis.
- (b) What methods can be used to build up and maintain a steady supply of competent teachers of prevocational, vocational and technical subjects at all levels? Apart from analysing the experience of the countries of this region in this field, it would also pay to look for light from the developed countries which have a longer tradition in this area.

70. Most policy-makers of this region are unanimous in stressing the special need to attend to the educational needs of the rural areas where the majority of the people live. Research is needed in order to determine in what respects the needs of the rural people are essentially different from those of the urban sections of the populations. A number of important experiments in rural education—some of them on a fairly extensive scale—have been carried out in this region during the last two or three decades. It would be useful to review these experiments and distill the lessons to be learnt from them. More particularly, it is necessary to enquire whether experience and needs would justify a different approach to the organization, content and methodology in the rural institutions.

71. There is no country in this region which does not accord pride of place to teacher training in its programming of educational development. It is realized that the quality of education will be what the teachers make it. It is necessary to examine methods currently in use for the training of primary and secondary teachers in order to determine whether or not they are effective and in order to design alternative methods. In view of the large financial allocations already committed to teacher training and the still larger investments likely to be made in it in the present decade, the countries concerned must undertake a careful appraisal of the prevailing teacher training programmes.

72. There will be many more areas of broad research which will meet the special research needs of each country. The areas indicated have been singled out for special mention because of their particular relevance to overall development.

73. Above all, the effectiveness of educational development based on careful planning will depend on the quality of the research behind it. Collaboration between governments and with international agencies will benefit the research programmes of the region.

Co-ordination with other social programmes and with the national economic development plan

74. Using the methods of planning and programming suggested above, the co-ordination of plans and programmes for education with those for other social sectors, and with the economic and social development programmes as a whole, takes place in the course of preparing the education programme itself. The education programme is derived from and at the same time is an integral part of the overall development programme. It cannot be completed until the overall development programme is established, and the latter is incomplete until the education programme is established.

75. In particular, it was pointed out by the Group that educational planning had such a close impact on productivity through the quality and skills of the labour force, that the first educational planning priority in developing countries was to relate it to economic development in order to help to raise living levels.

76. There is need, of course, for continuous contact between education planners and planners in other economic and social sectors related to education, and of the central planning organization. Perhaps even more important is a continuous interchange of views, information and progress reports, and discussion of mutual or inter-related problems, in the course of implementing the programme. Residential construction, city planning, and school and hospital construction, for example, are obviously closely related, not only in the planning and programming stage, but in the stage of execution as well. Accordingly, the departments concerned must maintain contact in all stages of planning, programming, and implementation. The ultimate co-ordination in all phases, however, must take place in the central planning organization and find its expression in the overall development plan.

Chapter II

PLANNING FOR THE HEALTH SECTOR

Present position

77. Inclusion of substantial health programmes in the national development plans of countries of the region is evidence that the need for health improvements is widely recognized. Moreover, the giving of some degree of precedence to providing of rural health services, more particularly those relating to environmental health, properly reflects the fact that a majority of Asian peoples live in the rural areas. Special emphasis is usually placed on the control of such widespread communicable diseases as malaria, tuberculosis, smallpox and yaws. Basic to these activities is the provision of gradually expanding facilities for the giving of medical care, together with training programmes designed to increase the quantum of workers available in all health categories. In a number of countries growing attention is being given to the provision of services for the control of endemic diseases such as trachoma, leprosy, goitre and venereal infections.

78. Notably in China (Taiwan), India, Malaya, Pakistan and the Philippines, substantial numbers of health centres and sub-centres have been established in the rural areas to afford a network of peripheral-level services of both a preventive and curative character. Here, the minimum provision is for maternal and child health care; often general medical care is offered in addition. In many areas these centres are linked to hospitals providing referral services and their staffing pattern permits of some domiciliary activities relating to maternal and child care and/or environmental hygiene. In most countries, national malaria control programmes are being converted to full-scale eradication efforts; eradication of smallpox has become a recent major objective in both Pakistan and India.

79. One major overall health field in which much remains to be done is environmental sanitation—particularly the provision of community water supplies and of safe disposal for wastes. Similarly in the field of health education, much work has yet to be done regarding the causation and prevention of malnutrition and the values of protective immunization in respect of such diseases as the enteric group and cholera. Of the handicaps militating against rapid progress in health matters, perhaps the most outstanding is the very considerable amount of illiteracy which still prevails. Not only is the imparting of health education made difficult thereby, but any attempt to require a satisfactory educational level of health-worker trainees at entry precludes their being recruited in sufficient numbers. Another severe handicap is the lack of adequate communications in many areas allied to a tendency for such communication routes as do exist to go out of commission over long periods due to uncontrolled flooding.

80. That many of the health problems are susceptible to control as and when sufficient attention can be paid to them has been made apparent by the steady improvement in mortality rates already obtained, notably in the infant sector, together with the steep rise in longevity reported wherever specialized services have concentrated on mass control and eradication efforts against single diseases such as malaria. The one weakness to be found in respect of these mass campaigns stems from the fact that when the incidence of the disease concerned is reduced to a level at which it becomes uneconomical to provide a specialized service approach, it is desirable for the local health services to take over residual maintenance duties which, in many areas of a number of countries, is not yet possible.

81. Another health service problem is posed by the high costs of the new weapons against disease made available by modern scientific advances, whether insecticides or therapeutic substances, and the lack of facilities for their storage and preservation. The wide publicity given to such advances stimulates local demands for their introduction before a developing country is in a position to finance either local manufacture or large-scale importation. This has happened with both freeze-dried vaccine preparations and those chemotherapeutic drugs found safe for use by the tuberculous under ambulatory conditions.

82. Newly created situations apart, certain chronic factors continue to retard health progress in Asian countries. They include a traditionally parsimonious attitude in most ministries of finance toward meeting the capital and recurring costs of the welfare services, the preoccupation with curative matters which prevails among members of the medical profession in circumstances where preventive measures are at least as important, the failure of most health service arrangements to cater for the needs of children too old to qualify for attention at infant clinics but still too young to be reached through school health services, and a rate of population growth which constantly outstrips the rate at which budgetary provision can be increased sufficiently to cater for the augmented numbers.

Approaches and objectives

83. As the foregoing short survey of problems and achievements to-date has indicated, many more trained health workers are required in most countries. Also they should include not only a high proportion with a public health outlook but some skilled in health planning. These latter should preferably be equipped to fulfil a dual planning and implementing role inclusive of the undertaking of continuing applied research and evaluation tasks appropriate to new and expanding services. Especially must the countries of the region apply themselves to the need for creating service conditions and amenities capable of attracting medical and paramedical personnel to administrative and public health work, particularly in rural areas, and for orienting them to give attention to the integrated curative and preventive requirements of their work situations.

84. A fundamental objective must be the promotion of training in health education techniques. This should be organized not only for all health workers but also for members of the teaching profession and for such community development personnel as are required to handle health subjects. Only through training can it be ensured that the modern techniques of mass communication will be used to maximum effect by all those persons in close contact with the general public. In the context of health education there is need to give special attention to the subject of nutrition. Attention should also be given to extension programmes in home economics together with legislation to control food quality, as also implementation of agricultural policies aimed at making available food better related to local nutritional needs. The Group noted that, while many countries of the region have food policies accentuating the production of cereals and other bulk foods, only a few have nutritional policies directed towards the increased production and utilization of protein-rich and protective foodstuffs. It is desirable, therefore, to incorporate nutritional considerations in national development plans, particularly in relation to the needs of the rural population and to vulnerable groups in the community.

85. Having regard to the different levels of attainment prevailing among Asian countries at present, and to their differing capacities for achieving further developments, national plans will necessarily vary one from another. For some, the current pace of industrialization will make it imperative that urgent attention be paid to urbanization and sub-urbanization problems arising from the creation of new townships. Additionally, wherever new aggregations of industrial workers occur, special services will be required to deal with their routine health needs and to safeguard both the workers and the local environment from such prevalent industrial hazards.

86. In some countries, such as Japan, contributory health services and insurance schemes cover the whole country; while in some countries such as India, where contributory health service and insurance schemes have begun, it is necessary to plan to increase the segments of the population covered. Elsewhere, free state services will continue to be required for the very large numbers economically unable to utilize private practitioner services. In all countries, it remains essential to provide from state resources: effective protection of the total population from the risks of epidemic disease; adequate arrangements for the care of such vulnerable groups as children, pregnant women and the nursing mothers, and appropriate safeguards in all areas, such as ports, airports and atomic energy establishments, liable to prove a source of emergent health risks.

Techniques of programming

87. From the programming standpoint, health services fall into four main categories. These are the promotional services concerned with environmental improvements, sound nutritional standards and a healthy physique; the personal preventive services dealing with immunization, periodic health

examinations and health education; the curative services relating to the diagnosis and treatment of disease and injury; and the restorative services whereby an individual is enabled to return to full living and working capacity following illness and disability. It is the job of sound programming to give balanced consideration to the claims of all four categories within the context of overall social and economic planning. This should be done with due regard to new advances in medical science and to the impact of local social, economic and cultural conditions likely to influence the health of the community.

88. In order that programming may be made more purposeful, there is need for most Asian countries to develop services for gathering adequate vital and health statistics, thus providing a continuing and reliable basis for realistic planning. There is need also to employ on a full time basis at both the central and provincial levels persons adequately trained in planning techniques. Such persons should be enabled to have continuing contacts with the practical development of programmes at field level, so that adjustments found to be desirable may be made known to them for future planning purposes and so that planning and implementing personnel will clearly understand each others roles and the full import of each programme.

89. Where very little if any systematized statistical information is available, some attempt at surveying the health situation in representative areas might usefully be made, so as to: elicit, in general terms, the prevailing patterns of illness and fertility; obtain knowledge about existing health services, and their relevance to observed needs; and gain insight into the nature of the local educational and agricultural activities. In particular, the impact of local cultural patterns and customary beliefs will merit careful appraisal so that educational approaches designed to take maximum advantage of them may be developed. Subsequently, *ad hoc* surveys could be undertaken both to assess changing trends and to enquire further into specific new factors.

90. As a general rule, enquiries into the needs of Asian countries have indicated that the required priorities are broadly similar for them all. From a long-term perspective, overall emphasis should be placed on preventive as distinct from curative services. Then again, the paucity of trained personnel for almost every category of health work makes it imperative that comprehensive estimates of ultimate manpower requirements be formulated and phased training programmes developed to meet them. Allied to the gradual provision of trained health workers, there should be a systematic plan to effect nation-wide coverage by basic health service units so that, as quickly as possible, an infrastructure will be developed into which field services of a specialized nature can be locally integrated as and when they reach a phase at which their separate existence can no longer be justified.

91. There are many subjects suited to both short-term and long-term programming. These should be selected on a priority basis. High on the list for every Asian country must come environmental sanitation improvements with particular reference to the provision of community water supplies and related drainage systems together with effective disposal arrangements for domestic and industrial wastes. No less important is attention to the control of communicable diseases and the promotion of improved human nutrition. In the former field, most countries are already committed to a malaria eradication programme. Next high in overall priority list comes tuberculosis, after which attention will have to be paid to such diseases as cholera, smallpox, trachoma and the diarrhoeal group, according to their local degrees of importance. Fundamental to all the foregoing activities will be research into the various medical and public health problems requiring elucidation so as to facilitate more effective planning of services.

92. A long-standing feature of health services in Asian countries has been the attention paid to maternal and child health needs. Where upgraded primary health centre services are replacing the simple rural units hitherto mainly concerned with maternal and child welfare, the aim should be not merely to maintain the existing service but to undertake as much additional domiciliary activity and pay as much attention to the needs of the pre-school child, as the new staffing pattern will allow. Other population groups meriting particular concern are those engaged in industries giving rise to special health hazards or of such importance to the national economy as to qualify for specially high standards of health care.

93. In regard to areas presenting problems requiring specific attention, programming should concern itself with ascertaining the regional limits within which such diseases as endemic goitre, filariasis and plague are occurring so that remedial measures may attempt complete coverage. Likewise aggregations of population known to present a high incidence of venereal disease should be located by survey and scheduled for appropriate programming attention.

94. As to actual programming procedures, one approach is to establish targets for the development of health services and determine the amounts to be allocated for their implementation; these can be expressed in concrete figures or indices, e.g. numbers of hospital beds, numbers of doctors, total numbers of health service workers, values of capital investments required, numbers of new hospitals to be commissioned upon utilization of these investments inclusive of total bed numbers, amounts of expenditure required for maintaining existing health services, etc. Starting with the basic year, these indices should be laid down for each successive year of development.

95. In order to facilitate determination of staffing and other needs, together with the financial allocations involved, whether in respect of new developments or the established health installation network or of special

anti-epidemic undertakings, calculated norms are desirable for each planned period, e.g. norms of workload per doctor and of each other category of worker in a hospital or polyclinic, the average amount of salaries involved, the cost of medical supplies and drugs per patient per day, expenses on food per patient per day, etc.

Financial allocations

96. The proportion of the national budgets allocated to health varies from country to country, being determined to some extent by the degree to which national policy is prepared to provide free health services and by locally prevailing rates of remuneration. A general belief is that most Asian fiscal authorities do not give as much weight to the budgetary claims of health and other social services as the human values underlying them and their potential for enhancing national productivity rates would seem to justify.

97. It has to be borne in mind that any case for an increased allocation has to be supported by evidence that the existing allocations can be more than fully spent. It has sometimes occurred that, due to the paucity of trained personnel, delays in the provision of required buildings and in acquiring such items of equipment and drugs as are not produced locally, etc., budgeted provisions have lapsed from failure to spend them and been returned to general revenue at the year's end. On this account, programmes about to be put forward for financial sanction should be realistically examined from the standpoint of feasibility. Again, the temptation to build a large and costly hospital should be resisted if there are small prospects either of recruiting in time sufficient staff to run it or of meeting the heavy recurring costs its full functioning will demand.

98. Consideration should be given to balancing expenditure as between preventive and curative services having regard to the fact that relatively small expenditures on immunization, mass campaigns against specific diseases and health education, are potentially able to benefit very large numbers of people. Again, coverage as between urban and rural areas needs judicious determination; more particularly in a predominantly agricultural country where it is the rural areas that provide the nation with its main assets for productivity.

99. The foregoing considerations apart, scope should be provided for the effective mobilisation of local voluntary effort and for using reappropriation procedures between funded programmes when changing circumstances so warrant, and also for some delegation of financial authority to permit quick action to meet urgent new developments. In this context, important changes in planning are being dictated by new scientific advances. The increasing availability of drug substances with which ambulatory tubercular patients can be adequately treated now makes public investment in expensive sanatoria and tuberculosis hospitals redundant. Similarly, new drugs for

the treatment of leprosy make the retention of institutional accommodation beyond what is needed for training and short-term rehabilitation requirements unwarranted.

100. In view of the prevailing shortage of foreign exchange in most Asian countries and of the high costs of imported drugs and medical equipment, there is a strong case for awarding priority in making financial allocations to economically sound programmes designed to bring about local self-sufficiency in these commodities. In the large countries, a parallel case can be made for financing workshops able to produce the types of prosthetic apparatus needed for rehabilitation of the handicapped. In countries where the demand for items in these categories would be relatively small, there seems to be scope for inter-country collaboration whereby a production unit in a single country is geared to meet the requirements of several others.

Training

101. The urgent need for large-scale training programmes is implicit in much of what appears in the earlier sections of this report, which has also emphasized the need for training health planners; it is very much to be hoped the Asian Institute for Economic Development and Planning will make an early effort to assist countries of the region in the latter field. Where medical and paramedical workers with differing skills are teamed together, as in district tuberculosis units or in large primary health centres, there is a case for providing some degree of group training to help each individual to realize his proper place in the team and to gain insight into the need for collaborating with his colleagues.

102. In view of the prevailing paucity of fully trained health personnel, every effort should be made to relieve qualified doctors and nurses of non-medical and nursing duties which can be equally well done by trained lay administrators or clerks or by members of the various categories of auxiliary health workers trained to work under professional supervision. The shorter training periods involved will enable large numbers of these auxiliary workers to be produced quickly; moreover, as their employment is being less highly rated, the recurring costs involved will be more easily met and, if they are specifically recruited and trained for rural health service, they will accept a rural posting without the resistance often displayed by full professional workers.

103. Expansion of the quantum of workers in the auxiliary category may, with advantage, be facilitated by giving additional training to workers released from single-purpose mass campaigns, e.g. malaria and yaws, as these campaigns reach conclusion area by area. With training most of them can be expected readily to adapt themselves to performing multi-purpose health duties and, by this means much of the value of their earlier field experience will be retained in the health service.

Planning machinery

104. At the present stage of development in Asian countries, it is clear that overall planning, including planning in the health sector, has to be primarily a national responsibility. In some instances, there is an *ad hoc* Planning Commission in which senior members of the government participate and which draws its full-time staff mainly from government sources. In other instances, there is a high level committee representative of the best local planning skills but not directly identified with the government machine. Depending on the delegation of powers in health matters, there may be additional planning bodies at provincial levels. Where a federal system of government obtains, and health has become state or provincial responsibility, special constitutional and/or financial machinery may be necessary.

105. Experience has shown that, whatever the arrangement, full consultation at the state and provincial level is essential if active understanding and co-operation are to prevail in all quarters. There is need also for frequent and close contacts between the planning and implementing agencies so that execution of the plan may properly reflect the planners' basic intentions and so that adjustments dictated by changing circumstances or by experience may be effectively integrated with the related plan components. Contacts between planning and implementing agencies will be facilitated if there is a comprehensive reporting system whereby the planning authority is kept regularly informed of progress and of unforeseen situations.

106. Some quarters advocate giving the planning agency some authority for ensuring that the actual execution of plans follows the prescribed lines. Virtually, this would mean making the agency a responsible government organ able to employ governmental powers whenever adherence to a particular plan formulation has to be enforced; hence there may be constitutional implications involved. Whatever the arrangement, it is apparent the persons undertaking the planning should be of the highest calibre.

107. An important duty of any planning authority is to secure maximum consultation and co-ordination among all local parties with a knowledge and experience of health needs and therefore capable of suggesting how best to meet them in given circumstances. To this end, health staff at all service levels, representative of professional organizations such as those for doctors, dentists and nurses, research workers, faculties of medicine, together with non-government and voluntary associations engaged in health work, should be asked to present their views and be given an opportunity to discuss them. The views of the people should be taken into account, whether ascertained through trades union organizations, elected local government bodies at the village, township and municipal levels or through members of the central and provincial legislatures. Once the plan is final, its terms will require the widest publicity, both for health education purposes and to secure the maximum co-operation of all concerned at each stage of implementation.

Co-ordination with other social and economic programmes and the role of statistics and social research

108. While the scope for jointly planning education, health and housing may be greater than the scope for planning them jointly with other sectors, there is certainly need for closely co-ordinating the plans so that planned activities in the respective fields may serve to complement and supplement each other, rather than lead to duplication of effort and to competition with one another for the employment of a particular category of skilled persons currently in short supply in Asian countries.

109. In order that the place of health planning in economic and social programming generally may not be overlooked, attempts should be made to provide health survey data indicative of both the costs, and the welfare arising from, given health programmes. Assessment should refer both to direct changes in the level of health, as measured by morbidity and mortality indices, and to indirect effects affording evidence of raised productivity e.g. where eradication of malaria in an agricultural area permits a rapidly expanding population influx and commensurately increased cultivation progress. There should be assessment also of the deleterious effects on health occurring in places devoid of efficient health services where dissemination of disease vectors by irrigation works, industrial accidents and industrial pollution of air and of water channels have been noted.

110. There is need for health planners and economists to give careful study to practical means of evolving indicators capable of indicating the directions in which health activities can make a measurable contribution to economic investment and to overall development goals. Scope for applied research of a socio-economic character is offered by all such undertakings as maternal and child health services which, in a given area, halve the infant mortality rate in a relatively short time and thus preserve future adult manpower, a communicable disease control service which opens up a mining or cultivable or cattle-raising area hitherto neglected as unhealthy; and provision of a protected water supply that drastically reduces loss of working time through incapacitation due to water-borne disease. There is an obvious need in all these for reliable statistical information. It follows that the more comprehensive and accurate are the available statistical services, whether or not they form a direct part of the planning authority's machinery, the more effective and realistic will be the plans produced.

Role of local communities and voluntary associations

111. Paragraph 107 above indicates the valuable role local communities and voluntary organizations can play in helping to formulate new health plans. Their identification with the plan implementation processes is no less important and useful. Where a number of voluntary groups are working in related fields they should be encouraged to create a single overall organization so as to permit the sum total of their co-ordinated views and activities to be represented to the authorities.

112. Ways and means must be found of relating one or more specific production sectors to the particular areas of activity with which each of these organizations and communities happens to be mainly concerned. The advice they offer will, of course, have to be tendered in a formative way so as to exert a potent, if unobtrusive, influence on the selection of priorities and the introduction of any new or alternative methods which seem to merit trial. In all this, the authorities will have to ensure that the response to this advice is of a kind likely to make a real contribution to planned targets and achievements.

Role of international assistance

113. Several sources of international assistance are usually available to each Asian country and government requests in the social welfare field, particularly in the health category, are more often than not favourably received. It is important that all such assistance should be so co-ordinated in each country that there is little or no duplication of aid given in any one area. The aid should also be related to programmes which are within the framework of the national plan, have an appropriate degree of priority and are made the subject of a government undertaking to carry the work to a successful conclusion after outside assistance is withdrawn. It has to be kept in view that, ideally, project assistance should have a catalytic effect, lead to a cross fertilization of ideas as between local and assisting parties, and be both complementary and supplementary to efforts at self-help on the part of the receiving country.

114. International assistance may take a variety of forms, e.g. outside experts may be posted to a field situation either singly or in groups; the equipment required for their effective functioning, if not already available in the country, may be supplied directly or by arrangement with an allied agency; local workshops, seminars, conferences or study tours may be organized on a short-term expert assistance basis to bring together representative groups of nationals working in identical or related fields; and situations elsewhere may be provided with fellowships for periods of up to two or more years' duration. It should be stipulated that the fellows on return be employed by the sponsoring government in posts providing opportunity for them to translate their newly-won experience into values for the local service.

115. Given this range of possibilities, it is for each government to select the forms of assistance most appropriate to local needs and to see that the conditions governing the allocations made are duly observed. It is implicit in such arrangements that, where outside experts are brought into a country, both to benefit from the attachment and to reach standards of attainment permitting withdrawal of the experts within a reasonable period of time without impairing the project.

116. As regards fellowships, governments should not insist on fellows travelling to distant countries for training which can be as satisfactorily provided by reputable institutes or work situations within the region. Again, sojourns abroad for sizeable numbers of trainees in one field should not be demanded when the local situation permits training needs to be much more economically met by bringing into the country one or two experts qualified to establish a relevant local training programme. By such judicious utilization of assistance, the limited funds available for the purpose can be made to benefit a maximum number of field projects and local personnel.

Chapter III

PLANNING FOR THE HOUSING SECTOR

The housing situation in Asia and the Far East²

117. The situation in regard to housing and urban environments is perhaps worse in Asia and the Far East than in any other continent. It is estimated that about 50 per cent of the Asian rural population are inadequately housed and that 40 per cent of the urban population are living in slums under sub-human conditions. In India, for example, sample surveys of urban areas showed that 42 per cent of the houses had no latrines, 49 per cent had no safe drinking water supply, 80 per cent were constructed mostly of non-durable materials and 49 per cent had floor space less than 200 square feet. About 50 per cent of the households earned less than Rs 100 (\$20) per month and 47 per cent had floor space less than 50 square feet per person. Surveys of slums in Asian cities have shown that the consequences of slum dwelling on the individual and the community are disastrous. The effect on health is ruinous and the death and infant mortality rates are very high. Decent family life is virtually impossible and at night the sheer physical necessity of fresh air drives hundreds of thousands of people to sleep on the roads and foot-paths.

118. In Asian countries, the housing situation is particularly acute for the low-income families; for in most of them, the per capita national income is less than \$100 per year. With such low incomes, the bulk of the households cannot afford to buy or rent even a low-cost small dwelling. In India, the number of such households would be about 88 per cent in urban areas and in Ceylon and the Philippines about 80 per cent.

119. The total population of Asia is growing at an average annual rate of about 2 per cent per annum, while the urban population is growing twice as fast. About 20 million dwellings would have to be constructed annually to cope with the increase in population and replacement of dilapidated homes and to liquidate the existing housing shortage within 30 years. This would be equivalent to building annually about 10 dwellings per 1,000 inhabitants, or investing about 10 per cent of the gross national product in housing every year, as compared to the Asian countries' total investment in their economies of the order of 10-15 per cent of the gross national product and in housing about 1.5 to 3 per cent. In the circumstances, it is evident that in under-developed countries large-scale housing programmes are feasible only after the per capita gross national product

² "Urbanization and Housing in Asia and the Far East"—Progress Report by ECAFE secretariat—(E/CN.11/1&NR/HBWP.7/L.1, dated 27.6.62), and "Report of the Ad-Hoc Group of Experts on Housing and Urban Development"—(E/CN.5/367 dated 16.3.62).

has risen sufficiently over a number of years to provide the necessary financial resources. The housing situation in Asia has, therefore, deteriorated considerably during the last decade, despite the efforts of most national governments which include: direct public housing programmes of social interest; the establishment of satellite towns and preparation of master plans for larger towns and cities; subsidies, loans and other forms of assistance to individuals, housing co-operatives and others for the provision of social housing; the expansion of building materials industries; the provision of training facilities at higher levels and also for skilled workers; building research; measures to encourage the participation of the private sector in housing; steps to promote the construction of houses, particularly in the villages, with aided self-help. This continuous deterioration, despite all these efforts, is exemplified in India, where the construction of about 2.5 million urban dwellings during the decade 1951-61 did not prevent an increase in the shortage of urban housing from about 3 million dwellings in 1951 to almost twice as many in 1961. The high rate of population growth and of the migration to the urban areas, the low levels of productivity and savings of the people, the high and rising costs of land and building materials, and the comparatively low priority given to social housing in the scheme of national development may be identified as the key factors which have, during the last decade, aggravated the acute housing situation in most Asian countries, especially in urban areas.

Housing³ policy and administration

(a) Housing policy and its ramifications

120. Keeping in view the limitations and requirements of the countries in the ECAFE region, the Group recommends that:

The short-term objective of national housing policy in the Asian countries should be to arrest further deterioration in the housing situation and to improve the condition of housing in both urban and rural areas. The long-term objectives may be at ensuring that decent housing, complying with such minimum standards as may be prescribed by national governments, is made available in the foreseeable future to the mass of the people. These objectives should find a place in the overall objectives of national planning.

121. National housing policy should be co-ordinated with the general social and economic policy and, in the scheme of national planning, the provision of housing should be given suitable priority, taking into account the acuteness of the need for it and the requirements of balanced social and economic development. In other words, governments should ensure that economic growth is accompanied by the necessary investment in housing. It should also be one of the aims of economic development itself, to ensure that in the long run, the materials, equipment, and trained manpower required for housing become available in sufficient quantities.

³ The term 'housing' has been used in the report in its broader sense to cover housing, environmental hygiene and related community facilities.

122. Urbanization, which will be a major problem in the Asian countries in the years to come, should be regulated by regional and urban planning in depth and on a wide enough canvas. Such planning should take into account the locations of power, industry and human settlements, the communication pattern and the other infra-structures of development on a rational basis and set the pattern for a balanced urban and rural growth. All development projects should, as far as possible, be conceived in terms of overall physical planning on a regional basis, which will produce, from the outset, a relationship between economic and social activities making for efficiency in both. Control of urban land values through fiscal and legislative measures should form an essential ingredient of housing policy, and land should be acquired and developed by government and local authorities well ahead of the implementation of master plans. It cannot be over-emphasized that housing policies must be set in the larger context of economic development and industrialization and of the problems of urbanization which are likely to emerge over the next decade or two.

123. National governments in Asian countries may establish a suitable legislative framework for the promotion of housing and urban development in all its aspects, such as regional and urban planning, land acquisition, and clearance and improvement of the slums and blighted areas. These legislative enactments should not be negative in approach but should be regulatory and promotional in character. This is especially important when it comes to enacting legislation on the creation and working of institutions dealing with housing finance, such as mortgage credit associations, housing finance corporations, building societies and the like. Legislation should protect their investment in housing and assure them of a reasonable return over a period of years; otherwise these institutions, which play such an important role in the field of housing in the advanced countries, will never come into their own in the Asian countries.

124. National housing policy should aim at creating conditions which will encourage maximum participation by private, co-operative and public agencies in the solution of the housing problem. Particular attention should, however, be paid to canalising the investment in housing to serve sound social and economic objectives and to the providing of social housing for the families of low-income groups which cannot be adequately housed without government assistance.

125. It should be ensured that all the public and private resources made available for housing are co-ordinated and utilized in close collaboration with other social development agencies, with a view to creating residential neighbourhoods self-sufficient in such community facilities as parks, playgrounds, schools, hospitals, dispensaries, community centres, fire stations, places of entertainment, shops, markets and light service industries, post offices, police stations, etc. These neighbourhoods, in turn, should be well integrated within the overall master plan, or in its absence in interim plans, for the development of the city or area.

126. In Asian countries, national housing policy should, to the extent considered feasible by national governments, aim at obtaining effective contributions from employers to help solve the housing problems of the workers in their factories, mines, plantations, etc.

127. Co-operative housing, the potentialities of which have been little explored in the Asian countries, should receive special encouragement in view of economic as well as social considerations. It is important, however, to ensure continuity in the co-operative housing movement by creating suitable organizational structures which accumulate administrative and technical know-how, somewhat on the lines which have proved successful in the Scandinavian countries.

128. In Asian countries, the rural housing policy may be directed towards improving housing conditions in the villages, on the basis of aided self-help and as a part of the larger programme of community development and village planning. A policy, based on these considerations, should devote special attention to organizing the villagers during the period they are unemployed or under-employed to co-operate in self-help and community activities involving the production, processing and transport of local building materials, the construction of simple and sanitary houses and community buildings, and the improvement of streets, drainage, water supply, sanitation and environmental conditions.

(b) *Housing administration*

129. With a view to ensuring effective implementation of the national housing policy with its numerous ramifications, the Group recommends the following:

In Asian countries where it does not already exist, a Housing and Town and Country Planning Ministry should be established in order to tackle all aspects of the housing problem comprehensively. The allied subjects of housing, slum clearance and town planning should be under one authority at the central as well as the provincial levels.

130. A three-tier organization at the central, provincial and local levels, with sufficient devolution of power and authority, is a housing administration structure well-suited to most Asian countries. The central authority may concern itself with formulating housing and urban land policies and national housing programmes and schemes, initiating legislative measures, providing public finance, establishing of financing institutions and insuring of mortgage loans, fixing minimum housing standards, promoting building materials industry and low-cost housing, co-ordinating of building research and training programmes, generally supervising the activities of the provincial and local authorities, and evaluating the actual working of the various schemes and programmes. It may be the responsibility of the provincial and local authorities to collect housing statistics, carry out

housing surveys and socio-economic studies, enact legislation, organize housing co-operatives, implement the housing programmes and attend to the planning, execution and administration of public housing projects.

131. Close co-ordination should be maintained between the agencies at the central, provincial and local levels through personal contacts, meetings, seminars and conferences, whereby the ministers and officials concerned could be brought together with representatives of interested non-official groups and organizations to make a concerted effort to improve housing conditions in the country.

Planning, programming, implementation and management

(a) *Planning*

132. It is considered essential that Asian countries should endeavour to establish adequate planning and executive machinery at the national, provincial and local levels for the formulation and implementation of plans of over-all physical, social and economic development. The three-tier housing administration should be dovetailed into this machinery, which may ultimately develop into a network of units from the village upwards, co-ordinated at successive levels by appropriate organizations and feeding the Ministries and the Planning Commission at the centre. The working of the machinery for formulating and implementing the plans at the national, provincial and local levels and the planning procedures should be so arranged as to ensure effective co-ordination and integration among the different sectors of social development programmes and between the economic and social fields of development. In this connexion, the Group was impressed by the example of India cited in a Working Paper used at the meeting which explains in considerable detail how co-ordination between the Indian Planning Commission at the national level and the planning departments in the states is secured through a National Development Council and numerous working groups. It also explains how further co-ordination between the various sectors of social development planning and between the economic and social fields is effected through the planning machinery and through the procedures adopted in reformulating and implementing the Five-Year Plans and the annual plans.

(b) *Programming*

133. It is recommended that, in formulating a national housing programme, the following important ingredients should be kept in view:

- (a) Assessment of the overall housing situation and needs through sample surveys, population census, demographic studies, housing census, etc.

- (b) The regular collection of statistical data pertaining to housing and building construction and the production and consumption of building materials.
- (c) The establishment of austere but satisfactory minimum housing standards and promotion of low-cost housing.
- (d) The physical planning of towns, villages and regions.
- (e) The training of planners and other personnel, and vocational training of skilled workers and supervisors.
- (f) The mobilization of funds from all sources, including personal monetary savings.
- (g) The mobilization of non-monetary resources in the shape of labour and materials.
- (h) Measures to increase the capacity and efficiency of the building and building materials industries.
- (i) The acquisition and development of land and the construction of houses and community buildings by public authorities, private enterprise, housing co-operatives and aided self-help.
- (j) Government sponsored or aided social housing programmes for the backward or weaker sections of the community, and for special groups such as factory workers and miners, whose housing promotes industrial productivity, and low-paid employees of government and local bodies whose housing has a bearing upon the efficiency of public administration and enterprise.
- (k) The promotion of research—social, economic and technological—and of operational research through pilot projects and experimental settlements.

134. The specific contents of a national housing programme⁴ and the methods employed in its formulation will depend upon the particular situation in a country. After evaluating needs, resources and limitations, the programme should be so framed as to utilize available resources most effectively and make them go as far as possible in satisfying the more urgent or vital needs. For this purpose, the programme should include strategic targets in physical, financial and other terms on the basis of well-defined population groups or geographical areas or income groups. The sequence and other details of the procedure to be adopted will also depend upon the particular situation in a country. If the programme is to be

⁴ Paper No.200 by Jacob L. Crane—United Nations Seminar on Housing and Community Improvements, New Delhi, 1954.

effective, its formulation will require the participation of consumer and public interest groups, private interest and producer groups, provincial and local governments, administrative agencies of the national government, and members of the national parliament and provincial legislatures.

135. In programme making, many factors have to be surveyed, evaluated and analysed in relation to each other and made to yield a reasoned set of conclusions. In the Asian countries, adequate machinery for the collection of relevant statistical data does not exist, so programme making has to depend upon what may be called an evolving technique of analysis. The first step in this analysis is to review the nature and magnitude of the overall problems by assembling from population census, sample surveys, etc., all available data on the various aspects of the current situation, such as the existing condition of housing, growth and migration of population, distribution of occupations and earnings, influence of climate on house design, current methods of house-building and the living habits of the people. The second step is to review the available resources in unskilled, skilled, supervisory and professional man-power; in natural and manufactured building materials; in land; and in capital. For each of these types of resources, the review should cover current manner of utilizing them and assess its deficiencies. It may also include an estimate of unutilized potentialities of each type of resource. The third step in the analysis is the identification of specific key problems, as the numerous and complex problems in the housing field cannot be tackled all at once in the ECAFE countries. Once the key problems have been identified, the next step is the formulation of a short-term and a long-term programme, keeping in view the readily available and the potential resources and the momentum which will be gathered during the process of development. The rational analysis is thus followed by making a selection of specific measures for action by government and other agencies.

136. Since the whole process of programming is evolutionary, it requires continuous review of the progress made by the implementing agencies, with a view to removing practical hurdles. This is best achieved through annual conferences of the ministers, officials and other interests concerned and through seminars, symposia, etc. Periodical evaluation of the end results of the programme by an independent and well-informed agency is also necessary in order to pinpoint major deficiencies in policy-making, the planning machinery and the executive agencies.

(c) *Implementation*

137. A plan is implemented at many levels—namely the national, provincial, district, sub-district and village levels. The responsibility for supervising of programmes and projects included in the plan and for ensuring that they are implemented efficiently and according to schedule should be that of the Central ministries and of the secretariat departments of the provincial governments, while the actual implementation should be carried out by executive departments and authorities specially designated

for the purpose. The machinery should be so devised as to ensure both vertical and horizontal co-ordination. In the housing field, it is the general experience in Asian countries that, while the houses and their internal services are completed within a short period, the provision of external services and community buildings lags considerably. The Working Group therefore, recommends that there should be proper co-ordination between the various social development authorities and that, as far as possible, the provision of services and community buildings should form an integral part of all aspects of the housing project, such as financing, planning and execution.

(d) *Housing management*

138. The admission of the first family into a completed dwelling in a low-cost housing development project signals the beginning of the most important function of public housing—that of tenancy and management. It should be kept constantly in mind that low-cost housing developments are established at great expense to assist families who are unable otherwise to provide themselves with decent housing, which would enhance their efficiency and productivity, improve their income and levels of living and enable them to participate more fully and actively in the affairs of their community. In fine, the ultimate aim of public housing is to endow those to whom life has been niggardly with more self-respect in their hearts and more dignity. Indeed, the success or failure of a public housing policy or programme, or the measure of whether public funds used in the construction of public housing projects have been a “sound investment” or have “gone down the drain”, may well depend upon proper housing management.

139. Despite its vital importance, however, housing management has often been neglected or not given its proper role in most housing developments in the countries of the region. The provision of shelter alone is not enough. Families moving into the new housing development projects, where large amounts of scarce public funds have been spent, need assistance and guidance not only in the proper use and maintenance of the facilities and services, but also in group living in a harmonious and friendly atmosphere, characterized by a “give-and-take” attitude and by the “work together” principle; for thus, they can better fulfil their proper role in the community of which they are a part and in which they have a definite stake. Most families moving into a new project come from slums and blighted areas which, being characterized by serious congestion, dilapidation, absence of sanitary facilities and appalling insanitary conditions, are likely to be centres of vice and crime, all of which will have been injurious to their health and morals. These families bring along with them a variety of problems of maladjustments, juvenile delinquency, illiteracy, drunkenness, malnutrition and ill-health, ignorance, inadequate income to provide for a large number of dependents mostly out of work, etc.; so they urgently require the guidance of trained social workers, the attention and assistance of health authorities and the understanding, help and kindness of family counsellors, vocational specialists, etc.

140. Without proper maintenance and repairs, expensive properties and facilities fall into disrepair quickly and the project deteriorates into another slum. These can be less expensive if the management is able to obtain the full co-operation of tenants in undertaking minor repairs. Trained project personnel should teach families to do simple maintenance work, such as replacing a worn out washer in the faucet, removing an obstruction in the kitchen sink, or patching a hole in a leaky roof, etc. Tenants will be found willing to do these simple tasks, as their admission to the projects inspires a sense of home pride.

141. The formation of a tenants association, ladies association, youth clubs, and similar groups promotes friendly and harmonious relations among the tenant families and fosters their greater co-operation with the management. The construction of a community building, playground, recreation areas, etc., for tenants is necessary.

142. The Gorup therefore recommended that housing estates built by public authorities and housing co-operatives be provided with proper management assisted by trained managerial staff and social workers for family counselling on problems of maladjustments, various forms of delinquency, etc; the staff should be able to teach the tenants the proper use and maintenance of the facilities and services, how to participate satisfactorily in community affairs, how to improve their incomes and how to utilize idle time by engaging in useful activities such as home gardening, food preservation, sewing, weaving, etc. There is need for a manual on home management for the guidance of families in the region's housing estates.

Financing of housing programmes

143. The Group emphasized that in formulating a national housing programme, the role of housing in national planning should be clearly recognized, and that adequate financial resources be made available for the housing programme. Firstly, the improvement of housing and environmental conditions constitutes a great social objective in itself, as the house is actually a home in which the family or basic unit of society must develop. The home is the place where the various members of the family live together as a unit. It is the place where the mother spends most of her time and where the young children spend practically all the day. It is still necessary to convince governments that the kind of houses most people live in, together with their environment and related community facilities, can have a marked influence on the health and well-being of the nation. Secondly, the provision of housing and related community facilities plays an important role in general economic activity and development, in industrialization, in trade, in employment and in technological advance. The provision of housing and the prevention or clearance of slums increase the productivity and return on other investments and thus improves their capital output ratios, as is obvious in the case of workers' housing. 'Participation in self-

help housing programmes results in the acquisition of new skills and imparts self-reliance which could be later applied to other productive uses. Social and economic activities converge in the fields of housing and of urban and rural development. The city⁵ or the village is a productive unit and investment in it, as a unit, is as essential to productive capacity and efficiency as investment in machinery, factories and farms. In particular, urban settlements form the basic units of economic, social and cultural activity and growth; this fact should be given adequate recognition by the national governments in the ECAFE region, so that due weightage is given to national housing programmes while considering the sectoral allocations of financial and other resources in the national plan. The ultimate decisions will be based on social, economic and political considerations and the Group is of the view that no formula yet exists which can embrace all these considerations. It should, however, be kept in view that many Asian families who are willing to save for better housing may not care to save for other investments; hence the provision of better housing may act as an incentive to mobilize the hitherto unutilized potentialities of many Asian families to save money; and the saving habit thus formed will promote not only housing but also other developmental activities.

144. The Group recommends that investment policies in the housing field should generally comply with the following requirements:

- i. The national housing policy and programmes should be clearly defined and the requisite machinery established for their formulation and implementation;
- ii. Investment decisions should be based on competent advice and adequate information;
- iii. Objective housing needs should be ascertained, so that the size and nature and locations of housing requirements are known;
- iv. Economic but satisfactory standards should be adopted for the provision of new housing, keeping in view both the ideal requirements and the existing levels of living; also a variety of measures should be adopted, ranging from the provision of sites and services to complete houses for purchase or rent;
- v. Every effort should be made to mobilize non-monetary resources in labour and materials;
- vi. Personal monetary savings should be mobilized for the provision of homes;
- vii. The capacities of the building and building materials industries should be expanded and their efficiency improved;
- viii. Investment in housing should, as far as possible, be canalised to serve sound social and economic objectives.

⁵ United Nations, *Report of the First Session of the Committee on Housing, Building and Planning*, (E/3719/Rev.1—E/C6/9/Rev.1).

145. The Group recommended that the mobilization and expansion of financial resources for housing be facilitated by the establishment, at the national and provincial levels, of Housing Finance Corporations, which would stimulate and support the activities of all bodies concerned with housing. Such action might include the following:

- i. Personal monetary savings, non-monetary resources in labour and materials and the contribution of the local community could be utilized through housing co-operatives, building societies, savings and home-loan associations, non-profit organizations and the like, if special credit facilities were granted to these organizations in the form of long-term amortisation and low-interest rates;
- ii. Banks, provident funds and insurance companies may be induced by state guarantees or insurance of mortgage loans to invest funds in housing;
- iii. Employers might be induced to make contributions to the construction of houses for their employees, in the shape of land, capital grants and rental subsidies;
- iv. Mortgage banks could be established on the basis of the joint liability for the mortgage obligations of the housing associations, so that larger and more liberal credits may be obtained, as well as first and second mortgage credit associations, similar to those in the Scandinavian countries, but adapted to local conditions and confined to housing activity;
- v. Revolving funds, which do not suffer from the drawbacks of annual budgetary allocations could be established for the acquisition and development of land and the construction of houses for sale.

146. The Group noted that in the Asian countries, government allocations for housing are often heavily slashed, whenever the national economy is strained in the process of plan implementation due to miscalculation or unforeseen circumstances. This upsets the programme of public housing. The Group therefore recommends that the financial allocations for public housing programmes in the national plan be pooled with the personal savings and institutional funds mobilized through housing finance corporations and similar institutions.

147. The Group further recommends that:

- i. State and local authorities should assist in the provision of social housing for the weaker sections of the community by granting capital and rental subsidies and long-term loans at low-interest rates; by extending a variety of tax concessions; and by aiding in the acquisition and development of land and in the provision of technical, managerial and consultant services;

- ii. Long-term loans at moderate rates of interest should be used as an effective tool of state or local assistance for the housing of middle and low-income groups, whose private savings may not be effective for many years to come and whose rent-paying capacity is not likely to attract private investment, which generally seeks high profit.
- iii. Inducements, such as relaxation of rent control for an initial period, tax rebates, depreciation allowances and similar measures may also be considered in the field of housing, provided they help in achieving desirable social and economic objectives.

Housing statistics and research

148. The Group noted that the position of housing statistics in most of the Asian countries is unsatisfactory in relation to the needs of planning. The Group, therefore, recommends that national governments should take action to establish adequate statistical machinery at the local, provincial and central levels for the collection, co-ordination and consolidation of housing statistics, both in the public and private sectors. These statistics may cover, among other things, the information pertaining to the number, size and cost of dwelling units, and the materials used for walls, roof and floor. As the subject is one of considerable complexity, involving a large number of cities and towns, it may be desirable first to establish an adequate system in the bigger cities and towns and to phase the programme for extending it to other centres. It is important that the statistical returns should flow at regular intervals and in the ordinary course of municipal and state administration. Statistics of the production, consumption and prices of important building materials should also be collected regularly. A housing census for the entire country may be conducted, if it is not too difficult to find the organization and resources for it.

149. Since few of the Asian countries can afford immediately the apparatus of regular housing census and statistics, the Group recommends that intensive sample surveys of housing conditions in the urban and rural areas be carried out. This may be followed by house-listing at the time of the decennial population census, as has been done in India. When the data collected in the house-listing schedules is tabulated and analysed, it facilitates compilation of an inventory on housing in the country and throws useful light on its structural, functional, size and tenure characteristics. It also serves as a framework of reference for tackling not only problems connected with housing but also problems in other sectors.

150. The Group noted that, in most of the Asian countries, social research to throw light on the numerous social aspects of housing and community life had not been undertaken on an adequate scale. It therefore recommends that governments promote social research studies, making use of modern techniques. Such studies may include the effects of social changes

in housing on productivity and the effects of economic advancement on the social aspects of housing. Social research will also throw useful light on numerous components of the housing problem, such as social characteristics and living habits of families classified according to income, occupation, location, religion, etc.; analysis of family incomes and budgets in relation to house rent and transportation costs; qualitative evaluation of dwellings; change in mental attitudes as a result of improvement in housing conditions; and problems of adjustment arising from the rehabilitation of erstwhile slum dwellers. It is emphasized that the studies should be conducted by competent and trained investigators, statisticians and sociologists.

151. Building research is essential for reducing the cost of housing and improving the quality of construction. The Group noted that a considerable amount of building research had been sponsored in recent years in India and Indonesia under the auspices of the Regional Housing Centres at New Delhi and Bandung for the hot-arid and hot-humid zones of the ECAFE region respectively. Investigations had been carried out in regard to a number of research problems, such as water-proof rendering for mud walls; effect of wall thickness and ceiling heights on thermal insulation; use of low-grade gypsum for light-weight partitions; utilization of waste products such as blast furnace slag, bagasse and straw for the production of building materials; improving the quality and use of local building materials such as bamboo, timber, tiles, bricks and lime; and designing houses, kitchens and latrines. The Group recommends that the programmes of building research under the two Centres be intensified and that the countries of the region make greater use of the research facilities they provide. It is also necessary to undertake pilot projects of experimental and demonstration housing, with a view to bringing the gap between the results of laboratory research and their actual application in the field by converting the 'know-how' into 'show-how'. Greater attention should be paid by national governments to the problem of effecting reduction in the cost of housing by, among other things, increasing the efficiency and productivity of the building trade and industry, through standardization, simplification, specialization, pre-fabrication and mass production of building materials and components, and by providing vocational training facilities to building workers and supervisors.

Public co-operation and participation

152. The Group emphasizes that due to lack of monetary resources, Asian countries will, for many years to come, have to rely mainly on aided self-help and community effort to improve housing conditions in the rural areas. It, therefore, recommends that intensive effort be made by national governments through community development organizations to mobilize, on a co-operative basis, the self-help and community effort of the villagers for the production, processing and transport of local building materials, the construction of simple and sanitary houses and community buildings and the improvement of environmental conditions. It should be recognized that

this is a human engineering problem calling for the peoples' co-operation and participation through local initiative and leadership.

153. The Group recognizes that much of the deterioration which occurs in living conditions in rapidly growing urban areas in Asian countries is due to the high cost of urban development, in particular the costs of improving or clearing slums and providing housing, public utilities and other services. The problems to be faced are formidable in size and complexity, and their solutions are difficult and expensive; it is, therefore, necessary to co-ordinate more closely the efforts of all the agencies concerned, and to secure the maximum of public co-operation and participation in their solution. In this context, the need to undertake the preparation of master plans for urban areas becomes all the greater for, without these plans, there is no means of bringing together and maximizing the contribution of different agencies towards well-defined common objectives pursued systematically over a long period. So it is important that the local community and voluntary associations and agencies participate actively in the formulation and implementation of master plans. In so far as the master plan is concerned with the improvement or clearance of slums and the provision of housing, the Group recommends that social welfare organizations, co-operative societies, non-profit housing associations, charitable trusts, tenants' associations, trade unions of workers, citizens' councils and ward committees should be assigned important roles assisting the local authorities.

Training of personnel

154. The Group noted that the formulation and implementation of housing programmes and projects will require trained personnel of the following types:

- i. Physical planners for regional, town and country planning; building and land-scape architects; engineers (civil, mechanical, electrical, structural and public health); statisticians; sociologists; economists; geographers; and administrators.
- ii. Building materials technologists.
- iii. Scientists and technologists for building research.
- iv. Building and public health inspectors.
- v. Plant operators for water-works, sewage disposal works, power houses, and factories producing building materials and components.
- vi. Skilled workers such as carpenters, masons, plumbers, mechanics and electricians, and their supervisors.

- vii. Urban and rural community development staff, including social workers.
- viii. Organizers of housing co-operatives.
- ix. Social workers for educating tenants in home management and improvements.

155. The Group recommends that quantitative and qualitative requirements for each of these types of personnel be worked out simultaneously with the formulation of housing programmes and that suitable arrangements be made in close collaboration with education, health and other sectors for the training programmes, taking into account the existing capacities and additional requirements in both the public and private sectors. Care should be taken that graduate technicians are not wasted in jobs where training at the diploma level or in a plant would suffice.

156. The Group noted that the ECAFE Working Party on Housing and Building Materials had recommended at its seventh session held at New Delhi in September 1962 that a Training Institute in Housing be established at the Regional Housing Centre (National Buildings Organization) in India to meet the needs for training in various aspects of housing in the countries of the ECAFE region. It was proposed that the Institute impart training at a post-graduate level in all important aspects of housing, such as (1) design and physical planning, (2) building construction, including productivity and site management, and (3) building administration and housing management. This proposal was endorsed by the Committee on Industry and Natural Resources at its fifteenth session held in February 1963 at Bangkok. The Group suggests that steps now be taken for the early establishment of the Training Institute at that Regional Housing Centre.

Expansion of international assistance to housing

157. The Group noted that the Regional Housing Centres at New Delhi (India) and Bandung (Indonesia) had been established with the assistance of United Nations experts and equipment and that their purpose was to survey, study and review housing problems and progress in their regions; to provide short-term training courses in matters pertaining to housing; to promote research on building materials and techniques; and to disseminate information in regard to research, experience and practice. Furthermore, the Special Fund had allocated \$550,000 for a Building Materials Development Laboratory at the Regional Housing Centre at Bandung, for the purpose of expanding the building materials industry in Indonesia, including the fabrication of tools and equipment. An Institute for Town and City Planning had been established in the Bandung Institute of Technology and was operated with the assistance of United Nations advisers. Liaison officers had been appointed with a view to promoting the use of research and training facilities available at the Regional Housing Centres in India

and Indonesia by other countries in the region and it was hoped that they would draw upon their services increasingly. The countries in the ECAFE region had further benefitted in the housing field from the assistance of the United Nations and its specialized agencies through the provision of experts, grant of fellowships, preparation of handbooks, manuals and reports, and organization of conferences, seminars, study tours and exhibitions. Similar assistance had also been given under programmes of bilateral and multi-lateral aid. On the whole, however, the total supply of international aid to housing in the ECAFE region, though growing, was small in relation to the countries' needs for international funds, equipment and services.

158. The Group noted that additional resources might become available from the Special Fund and the United Nations Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance (EPTA) for housing and related development, in the shape of funds, equipment and services for use by developing countries in mobilizing their latent domestic resources through pilot and demonstration projects, technical assistance and advice, and through programmes for extending low-cost housing, the development of the building materials industries and regional and urban planning. The Group is of the view that an appropriate share of these additional resources be made available to the countries of the ECAFE region and the activities of the Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East be increased and intensified in the field of housing, in close co-ordination with those of the specialized agencies of the United Nations, such as the ILO, FAO, UNESCO and WHO, which are also interested in housing in one way or another.

Chapter IV

PLANNING FOR THE SOCIAL WELFARE SECTOR

Definition

159. It was felt that before proceeding with the deliberations on the subject of Planning for Social Welfare, a definition of the term "Social Welfare" should be agreed upon in order to achieve a common understanding of the field to be covered.

160. The Group noted the definition of "social services"⁶ as used by the United Nations in the report of the Group of Experts on the Development of National Social Service Programmes which had been convened by the Secretary-General in 1959 (ST/SOA/40). It was pointed out that, in most Asian countries, the term "social services" was used in a much broader sense than this and that it included all the various organized efforts to develop human resources.

161. The term "social welfare services" on the other hand was used in most countries of the ECAFE region in a limited sense, to indicate primarily those enabling services for those groups which cannot take full advantage of the other organized services, such as education, health, housing, etc. It was therefore decided to use social welfare in this limited sense. However, to avoid confusion arising from two separate usages of the term "social", it was decided for purposes of discussion to use the term "welfare services" instead of "social welfare services".

Present position including trends in welfare services

162. A common characteristic of the movement for economic improvement through industrialization in the countries of Asia is their determination to avoid the social ills that accompanied the industrial revolution in the West. While it is true that welfare services were being provided by governments and voluntary groups for special segments of the population long before national economic development plans came into vogue, chapters on welfare services have been included in a great number of present day plans, not so much due to their presumed effect on economic development, than out of consideration for social justice and constitutional mandates.

⁶ "Social services" is defined as an organized activity that aims at helping towards a mutual adjustment of individuals and their social environment. This objective is achieved through the use of techniques and methods which are designed to enable individuals, groups, and communities to meet their needs and solve their problems of adjustment to a changing pattern of society, and through co-operative action to improve economic and social conditions.

163. Welfare services existing in the region may be classified under four main headings: (a) services for the family and the child; (b) services for the indigent and for the socially, physically and mentally handicapped, as well as those affected by emergencies; (c) community services, including services for groups such as, youth welfare, labour welfare, community centres, etc. and (d) services undertaken within the framework of related services or those outside the social welfare field. In nature, they are either preventive or remedial or both. They operate by aiding individuals, groups and communities through material help, institutional care, counselling and other casework services, group activities for youth and adults, and services developed within the framework of rural and urban community development.

164. Although most welfare services are being administered by governments, many are in the hands of voluntary agencies or organizations which often receive financial or technical guidance from the governments for their improvement.

165. In some countries, welfare services are a responsibility of a special unit of the government, while in others they are distributed amongst several offices as part of the other public services. Thus, there are welfare services for the sick in hospitals, for offenders in penal institutions, for children in schools, as well as services developed through community development, each handled by a distinct agency. In some countries, there is a highly centralized administration, while in others, a great deal of responsibility is assigned to local governments. The Philippines has a highly centralized Social Welfare Administration. China (Taiwan) had a Ministry of Social Affairs (now combined with the Ministry of Interior) which shares with the Ministry of Education responsibility for welfare services, much of which is delegated to provincial departments of social welfare. In Iran, both the Ministry of Interior and the Ministry of Labour have welfare services programmes. In Singapore, the Department of Social Welfare of the Ministry of Labour is responsible for a network of welfare services. In Indonesia, they are the responsibility of a Ministry of Social Affairs. There also provincial departments of social affairs share much of the responsibility with the central government. The trend, almost everywhere, is for decentralization of responsibility and functions, with local governments increasing their participation.

166. It was reported that, in India, the following changes in the approach of welfare services have been observed:

- (a) from mere relief of distress to a process of complete rehabilitation of the handicapped individual and family;
- (b) from merely palliative or curative programmes to preventive services;

- (c) from the mere maintenance of a few severely handicapped individuals to the education, training and after-care of the largest possible numbers needing such services; and
- (d) from merely providing custodial care to mixed groups suffering from varied handicaps to the development of specialized services for the rehabilitation of specific categories of the handicapped, classified scientifically and treated according to individual needs.

167. *Trends.* A most significant trend in welfare services in the region during recent years has been the assumption of increasing responsibilities by the governments. This has resulted in an increasing volume of social legislation in most of the countries. Other developments point to an appreciable trend away from the belief that welfare services especially to children can be rendered only in residential institutions. There is a growing recognition that welfare services consist of measures for long-term rehabilitation and not merely of those affording temporary relief.

168. There is also a realization of the importance of the quality of the service rendered and the need for laying down minimum standards. At the same time, since it is impossible to deal effectively with any social problem in isolation or without adequate knowledge of the social background in which it occurs, the need for social research is being increasingly realized.

169. But the principal problems involved in developing welfare services programmes in the developing countries of Asia are: (a) the low priority generally accorded them by the fiscal authorities, on the assumption that they are relatively of little significance to economic development, and (b) the lack of a planning methodology. Thus, there is at the present time neither a fixed objective nor a rational basis for determining the resources that should be allocated for welfare services.

General approach and objectives

170. The underlying approach of welfare service programmes in the different countries of Asia is to relieve acute distress amongst the poorer, weaker, vulnerable, dependent or under-privileged sections of the population and to promote their happiness and well-being. The ultimate aim is to ensure that every citizen enjoys a certain level of living and to prevent social institutions which perform certain essential and basic roles, such as the family and the local community, from disintegrating. It was also noted that recognition is being given to the "right" of individuals to certain welfare services as expressed in the constitutions of a number of countries in the region. The "Daily life security-law" of Japan is an example of the recognition of such a right, as well as Article 41 of the Indian Constitution.

171. It was pointed out that, in Japan, the wide variations of conditions and needs between rural areas and urban areas are giving rise to a differentiated approach in social policy. These differences in levels of living, social structure, sources of livelihood, available facilities and other factors result in different types of needs and suggest different modes of approach to meet them. This is likely to be also true of most countries in the region.

Techniques of programming

172. Countries in the region are at present not using comprehensive, systematic methods of social programming. In other countries too, the situation does not seem to be different. A method of programming developed in Puerto Rico, which will be published in a forthcoming issue of the "Journal of the American Institute of Planners"⁷ was outlined to the Group.

173. This method can be used to quantify those present and future needs which have been recognized by a society in its constitution, in legislation, or in some other unequivocal way. It can also be used to define, under certain plausible assumptions, the targets implied in programmes established by each society for the satisfaction of various needs, and to determine the present rate of progress toward these targets. The method has been applied not only to social welfare programmes but, simultaneously, to Puerto Rico's Housing, Education, Health and Rural Social Service programmes and is applicable wherever public or private institutions are actually functioning to satisfy human needs.

174. Recognizing that needs and benefits depend in the final analysis upon individual and social valuations, which differ among individuals and among societies and which are subject to change over time, the Puerto Rican approach begins with statements of needs which have already been incorporated into law and administrative practice, and examines the consequences of those social policies already adopted and their implications for the future. Once applied to existing programmes the method can be extended, on a hypothetical basis, to needs which have not yet been officially recognized, especially if, as is usually the case, these new needs are for an extension of existing services to additional people or for an increase in the per capita amount of services which are currently being rendered in some degree. Even proposals for entirely new services can be treated, to the extent that analogies to existing services, or to services being rendered in other societies, are acceptable.

175. The Puerto Rican method makes use of a four-fold distinction between (1) those who are needy, (2) those who have been made legally eligible to receive public services, (3) those who are clients of public programmes and (4) those who actually benefit from them. Thus, the

⁷ "Client analysis and the planning of public programmes" by J. Reiner, E. W. Reimer, T. Reiner.

constitution of a country may declare its responsibility toward all indigent persons. At the same time, specific legislation may authorize assistance only to the aged, the disabled and the children of broken homes, making no provision for those who cannot find employment to support themselves. If public assistance budgets are inadequate, the persons actually receiving public assistance, at any time, may be only a fraction of those eligible for it. Of those receiving public assistance some proportion will dissipate what they receive. Only the remainder are beneficiaries and closer examination would reduce even this number.

176. Differences between numbers of needy eligibles, clients and beneficiaries of various welfare services and other governmental programmes are attributed either (a) to "selection criteria", imposed by law or administrative practice as a matter of social policy or (b) to "standard of service", which result in some members not availing themselves of the services offered. Societies may give priority to the most needy in providing some services, to those who can be served most easily and cheaply in other cases, and to those who apply first in still others. Eligible persons may not claim a welfare service for which they are eligible either because they do not know about it, or because it is too small or too distantly located, or because it is given under conditions which violate religious, moral or ethical principles, or for other reasons.

177. Applying the concepts outlined above to demographic projections, which include the significant social as well as economic characteristics of a population, and to data from the records of public service institutions, the number of needy, the number of eligibles and the number of clients and beneficiaries can be projected into the future so as to reflect changes in age structure, the level and distribution of the national product, education levels and a variety of other factors, limited only by the availability of data.

178. Estimates of future numbers of the needy, the eligible, the clients and the beneficiaries associated with various programmes requires assumptions as to future social policy and practice; assumptions which can be applied as necessary to specific planning objectives. The assumptions made in the Puerto Rican example, were chosen to deal with problems of resource allocation. The basic assumption is that the actual record of a governmental programme implies a minimum target, i.e. that governments regard themselves as committed to maintain any steady rate of progress which has been achieved in meeting a once recognized need, and that those commitments (as defined) are given priority over other claims on governmental resources. Minimum targets for each programme can be calculated, on the basis of this assumption, by estimating the date by which all eligibles who are predicted, on the basis of past experience, to wish to become clients could be served at minimum standards, assuming continuation of the average rate of progress toward this goal, achieved in the selected baseline period. Eligibility, selection standards and minimum service standards are assumed to remain as presently defined in law.

179. Once the future costs of present commitments (as defined) are calculated, the uncommitted future resources of governments can also be calculated and the various claims on these resources can be compared in the light of their projected costs and benefits. Such new claims can usefully be classified into (1) claims to extend eligibility, (2) claims to increase benefits and (3) claims to provide for newly recognized needs.

180. The Group considered the usefulness of distinctions between need and eligibility and the usefulness of long-range planning in situations where needs far surpass resources as brought out in the method of analysis used in Puerto Rico. It was felt that these distinctions were useful for analytical and planning purposes and that long-range planning was useful even where the possibilities of implementation might appear remote. It was pointed out that action possibilities, which could otherwise be overlooked, frequently emerge in the course of perspective planning.

Short-term and long-term planning

181. The magnitude of needs for social welfare services in the region is by all estimates very considerable. On the other hand, the resources and the means which can be expected to be available for meeting them are inadequate. It is necessary, therefore, to plan to meet them on a long-term basis. A long-range time perspective may reveal a comprehensive picture of the needed development of these services. Such an exercise in perspective planning should indicate both the immediate and the prospective needs of the community, the degree of urgency and the time within which they can be fulfilled. Such long-term planning is particularly valuable in the case of social welfare services. Among the long-range proposals which could be considered are (a) the introduction of new community services, the adoption of new methods and the extension of existing services so as to achieve a maximum coverage of the community within fifteen to twenty years, (b) planning for the welfare requirements of the younger generation who represent the future of the nation's human capital, in whose hands its future lies.

182. Since the needs are great and the means to deal with them are relatively insufficient, it was considered necessary to evolve a practical strategy for attacking on a phased basis, the critical and urgent needs in the social welfare sector. Once the needs are determined and priorities developed in relation to them, it becomes possible to formulate a plan of action on a short-term basis. In developing such short-term plans, it is necessary to keep in view not only the relative urgency of the various needs, but also the existing opportunities for effective action. The resources likely to be available and the technical feasibility of fulfilling targets within a reasonable time should also be borne in mind. The targets set for the short period should be reviewed at intervals in order to modify them in the light of experience gained during implementation.

Priorities for particular categories of beneficiaries

183. While as a matter of principle, a welfare service should be designed to benefit all in need of it, in practice, it is necessary to have a more selective policy based on the incidence of needs and their different degrees of urgency. In view of the limited resources and the unequal and varying degrees of urgency in respect of specific needs, special attention may have first to be devoted to the fulfilment of the most urgent.

184. A generalized indicator of the degree of needs is given by the level of living. In some countries of the region, assistance in cash or kind is provided to specially needy individuals in the low-income groups. However, its extent and coverage is far too limited to meet their needs. The application of this principle to the circumstances of the region may therefore be beset with many practical difficulties. It was felt that, in the long run, the problem of low-income families will have to be met through accelerated economic development and the creation of adequate employment opportunities. However, it is necessary to give priority to those made destitute by exceptional circumstances and to low cost services covering a large number of beneficiaries. In some countries of the region, it was observed that preference is given to the low-income groups in the use of established welfare services. It was noted that the principle of mutual aid is well established in the value system of rural communities, but that in urban areas it might be necessary to promote special efforts for the relief of destitute groups.

185. In determining the groups needing special attention, mention was made of the acute need of the "vulnerable" groups, for example, children and expectant and nursing mothers. Children are not only the future moulders of the community's destiny; they are also its most vulnerable elements, and their specific needs are not necessarily shared by the community in general. However, their needs must be placed in the context of the overall family and community needs. It was suggested that the countries of the region undertake comprehensive surveys of children's needs as a basis for developing short-term as well as long-term plans for meeting them; for planning to meet the needs of the younger generation should become an integral part of national development planning of welfare services. The desirability of increasing and intensifying child and youth welfare services in rural areas in association with community development programmes was also suggested. Similarly, programmes which help to prevent social ills, such as maternal and child welfare programmes including supplementary feeding schemes for raising the nutritional level of children suffering from special nutritional deficiencies, as well as the improvement and extension of such projects as homecraft and mothercraft, and the development of integrated child welfare services in community development areas, were also felt to require emphasis.

186. The need for development of welfare services, it was felt, should also be considered in relation to the prevailing economic, social and geographical circumstances. It was found that, in many countries of the region, action in this field is usually initiated in selected sections of the community and then extended to the remaining part of the community as resources and trained personnel become available.

187. The experience of the region has shown that the distribution of welfare services between rural and urban area has been uneven. While on the one hand the magnitude of the needs of the rural sector is comparatively large, the urgency of needs in the urban areas is greater. The region's haphazard process of urbanization has resulted in the multiplication of social problems such as beggary and destitution, delinquency, crime, etc., which need immediate attention. In this connexion, it was noted that the value of supporting urban community development projects, designed to encourage self-help and, to some extent, mutual help in urban neighbourhood groups is being increasingly realized. In the rural areas, the development efforts in the region have been directed towards the promotion of community development programmes, the success of which has varied from country to country and from community to community. The Group felt that rural community development programmes should place adequate emphasis on the encouragement of group activities such as clubs for children, young people and women. Wherever such clubs have been organized, they have led to specific welfare programmes for the improvement of the community.

188. In addition, it was pointed out that in order to avoid excessive wastage of existing organized services such as health, education, housing, etc., cognizance and priority in the planning of welfare services should be given to those welfare services that enabled people to make effective use of them.

Criteria for determination of financial allocation—Applicability of cost/benefit ratio

189. The Group felt that it was difficult to pass judgment on the adequacy or otherwise of the financial allocations which were being made for the social welfare sector in the countries of the region; as considerable statistical research was needed to obtain the required data, in the absence of which it was impossible to form decisive opinions. It was also felt that, in the present state of social welfare research in the region, the criteria for determining such allocations were still quite nebulous. Hence, it was necessary to find some less subjective criteria for determining the allocations, which could be developed in particular circumstances. In developing them, it might be necessary to estimate the number of potential beneficiaries that would benefit from the particular welfare service, and the cost per unit of providing it over a given period. This would permit an estimation of the cost of providing a particular social welfare service and

thus would indicate the likely draft on resources if it was decided to provide such a service.

190. In respect of the social benefits that would flow from the provision of a particular welfare service, the Group was of the opinion that it would be difficult to quantify or express them in monetary terms. In the case of those services whose provision would reduce the cost of providing similar services in the future (as, for example, assistance to handicapped persons) and thus result in reducing the future burden on the community, the difference between present and future (discounted) costs, might be taken into account as a potential gain. In other words, an attempt could be made to estimate the potential benefits that might result from the implementation of a corrective service in the present period. In estimating benefits of welfare services, the Group recognized that account would have to be taken of the fact that these benefits also accrue to other sectors such as education, health, housing etc.

191. While it is difficult to quantify the benefits flowing from the implementation of welfare programmes, an attempt to express them in a clear form will assist the social policy-makers in giving due weight to individual programmes of social welfare. Costs—the numerator, can be readily quantified, but the quantification of benefits—the denominator—offers great difficulties. Unless both can be quantified it will not be possible to express the relationship between the two as an arithmetical ratio. A view expressed was that, such arithmetical ratios would be of limited significance in the social welfare sector where social values would determine priorities to a much greater extent than justification in purely economic terms. On the other hand, it was also argued that it should be possible despite the difficulties to find a way to quantify the benefits of the welfare services.

Machinery for planning

192. There was agreement that planning for welfare services should be undertaken within the context of the overall plan in order to ensure that the social aspects involved in the other sectoral plans are adequately considered and that provision is made for them. The importance of this requirement will be readily appreciated when it is remembered that the success or failure of a project is often determined by social considerations.

193. In examining the machinery for social planning in the countries of the ECAFE region, with the end in view of assessing their adequacy, the differences existing between countries in this respect were noted. While there are some countries which do not have any executive or policy organs specifically responsible for individual social subjects within the central planning agency, there are others, such as in the Philippines and Iran, which have a division or commission at the executive or policy level for providing integrated direction of the various social fields considered together. In

between these two types are countries, such as India and Pakistan, which have research or executive units, of varying size, scope and responsibility for specific fields of social development within the national planning agency.

194. The Group discussed at some length whether at the planning level a common machinery should be established for all the sectors of social development which would function as a part of the machinery for overall planning. One point of view was that different sectors in the social field have problems peculiar to themselves and do not have sufficient in common, beyond their mutual objective of promoting investment in man, to warrant a common planning department or division being established for them. The other view was that these sectors do have certain common approaches and aims and several points of interrelation and that establishing common planning machinery for them would therefore be desirable. While taking note of these points of view, the Group pointed out that even where a common planning organization could not be established for the different social sectors, there would be need for arrangements to ensure co-ordinated planning in the various social sectors, including the welfare services.

195. The Group agreed that, at the operational level, that is, in regard to the implementation of the programmes, each social sector would have to have its separate machinery with the necessary arrangements for ensuring co-ordination.

Role of local communities, voluntary associations and agencies

196. The Group recognized the vital role that local communities and voluntary organizations have always played in the provision of welfare services. It noted the trend for governments to assume more and more responsibility; but, at the same time, it emphasized the importance of maintaining the contributions of other groups, in view of the magnitude of the resources required for welfare services. While the provision of welfare services is ultimately the responsibility of the state, voluntary agencies and local communities should be encouraged to share as much of this responsibility as possible.

197. It should be the concern of the state to ensure that the standards of work and practice of such outside groups do not fall below an accepted level. This can be accomplished through a system of subsidy or support, financial, technical, or in kind, and through adequate supervision. Such support and supervision should be directed towards the improvement of the quality of services, as for example through training for social workers, etc.

198. It was suggested that a system of matching grants can be effective in promoting voluntary effort on a sound basis.

199. The Group felt that while voluntary organizations should be accorded the freest play at every level of social and economic development,

it is desirable for the government to co-ordinate their activities. In turn, such outside groups should be consulted by the government and involved in the planning of welfare services. This process would be greatly assisted by the formation of national social welfare organizations which governments could consult.

Role of statistics and social research in promoting better planning

200. In the countries of the region data in regard to the welfare services are insufficient and social research is not fully organized. Therefore a number of difficulties have to be faced in the programming of these services. The following aspects were suggested as requiring considerable attention:

- (1) The collection, presentation and interpretation of national statistics;
- (2) Fundamental research for planning purposes, including objective and empirical studies;
- (3) Operational, applied and problem-oriented research;
- (4) Evaluation of programmes or projects.

201. The Group agreed that the coverage of statistics in the social field should be improved and this would be useful also for international agencies. It was however wrong to separate the collection of data from research. There appeared to be a constant need for general applied economic and social research to serve the government in its continuous efforts of planning and programming by producing knowledge which the governments need from time to time. It was felt that this type of research should be undertaken by an institute or institutes supported and mainly financed by the government but operating independently with a staff of trained social scientists. One particular problem suggested for research in this field was the quantitative estimation of benefits in relation to the cost of programmes.

202. A suggestion was made that a planning-cum-action research project, as undertaken on an experimental basis in India in the fields of nutrition, integrated child welfare services, etc., might be considered by other countries in the region.

203. In addition to the various governmental bodies, universities, etc., which are conducting the collection of statistical data and research, it was suggested that a body dealing with social and economic research be established which would be responsible for co-ordinating all types of research undertaken and for identifying gaps in research activities; it would also encourage research in certain fields. It was noted that such a research council has been established in Indonesia.

204. It was also suggested that the system of gathering social data in smaller and developing countries should as far as possible be on a sampling basis, as is the case in India and Japan. This may be much cheaper than the collection of statistical data through population censuses, although for certain purposes, such as making the matrix of sampling, the census method will continue to be useful.

205. It was stressed that in Asia there is a real need for uniform data systems. If the planning process is properly conceptualized, the short-term research needed in this process should be integrated and there should be a built-in device for it in the planning system.

206. The need for co-ordination, pooling and exchange of research results in the countries of the region was pointed out, as also for exchanges of information on research projects and their results on an international basis.

207. It was observed that the utilization of research results for programme formulation and policy-making was not yet sufficient in the region and that it may therefore need to be emphasized.

Training for planning and other personnel

208. The Group noted that the absence of the required number and types of personnel, including planners, is hindering the development of welfare services in almost all countries of the region. This is one cause for the failure to develop a planning methodology, and for the ineffectiveness of some of the programmes, due to inadequate implementation.

209. The need for adequately trained personnel at all levels for welfare services has been recognized and discussed extensively in previous studies and reports of the United Nations. For instance, in the report of the Group of Experts on the Organization and Administration of Social Services that was convened by the United Nations in 1961 (ST/SOA/44), it was recommended, among others, that "a relatively high proportion of the personnel involved in social services should have professional or specialized training, although in most countries there is an acute shortage of trained social workers. Where there is a central social service authority, that body should encourage and support organized courses which provide professional education in social work and training at the auxiliary level." A number of general suggestions were also made in this report regarding the in-service training of social work personnel.

210. Since the need for trained social workers and planners is steadily increasing, it was felt that greater attention and resources should be devoted by the governments of the region to filling this need. In this connection, it was suggested that the curricula of institutions for social work training in the region should include some preliminary knowledge of programming and planning in the social welfare field.

211. International or regional arrangements should also be resorted to for the training of high level personnel. It was noted that grants for the training of personnel were available under different international technical assistance programmes. It was suggested that the possibility of training welfare planners in the Asian Institute for Economic Development be explored.

212. It was pointed out that for any programme of training for welfare workers and planners, the necessity of developing adequate and appropriate training materials should be recognized. To realize this, continuous research has to be undertaken and the results pooled together at the national and international levels.

International assistance

213. It was noted by the Group that several international agencies are giving assistance to the countries in the region in the social welfare field. This assistance is in the form of direct advisory services given by the United Nations Bureau of Social Affairs in special areas of the social welfare field, and by the United Nations Children's Fund in the establishment of pilot projects in the field of child and youth welfare services; urban community development and assistance to the handicapped; this aid also includes financial assistance for the training of personnel as well as provision of equipment and other material assistance.

214. It was recognized that, by and large, welfare services have to be organized by each country for itself, especially at the operational level. International assistance can, however, usefully supplement and support national efforts in selected fields.

215. Such assistance could be usefully rendered in the improvement of research in this field, and in the pooling and exchange of the resulting information with national programming. The extent to which social data is available in the respective countries might also help to determine the scope and extent of further international assistance in this field.

216. The Group noted the objectives of the World Food Programme and suggested that further benefits in the social welfare field could be derived from the expansion of its existing activities. In addition, the provision of surplus foodstuffs through other programmes may be expanded and used to supplement cash assistance to the needy through existing public assistance programmes in the countries of the region.

Chapter V

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS RELATING TO SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

217. The Group noted that the general background of the prevailing socio-economic situation of Asia, which is marked by overall poverty, low income, a high rate of population growth, widespread illiteracy, the lack of an adequate network of communications, and migration from rural to urban areas, has had a profound effect on planning for social development.

218. It was generally agreed that the broad statement of overall objectives of development, including the setting of minimum requirements and the general pattern of allocations, are and will continue to be based primarily on political considerations, value systems and the like. The ultimate choices between, for example, health and education or power and transport, to a considerable extent involved value judgments and, therefore, belong to the realm of political decision. It is essentially the wishes of the people as expressed by their governments that determines this broader question. The role of the planner has to be adapted to this overall framework of allocations. The Group did not, therefore, go into the methods of ascertaining people's needs and wishes or of finding an objective basis for determining the minimum requirements and goals of development. It was thought that the association of the people, both at the stage of planning and implementation, might be one way of taking into account these broader socio-political considerations.

219. There was also considerable concern with the related question of the impact of cultural patterns and values on economic change and with the general inability of social and cultural institutions to keep up with technological changes.

220. Some participants strongly argued that the arbitrary labeling of a group of fields as "social development" and of others as "economic development" is not a valid distinction and is in fact a dangerous conceptual error. According to this view, each programme has social and economic aspects which must of course be interrelated. Economic programmes have social effects and social programmes economic consequences. What are considered social objectives of development, such as raising levels of living, promoting employment, reducing income inequalities and more balanced geographical development, are as much economic as social. It is important, therefore, to look at each individual project, whether in the so-called social sectors or economic sectors, in terms of the overall objectives of development and to subject it to the same planning techniques and criteria. From this point of view, it is more useful to think in terms of "built-in" social elements in

economic undertakings (such as housing and medical care for workers in industrial establishments) rather than in terms of "balancing" social and economic development.

221. This view was, however, not shared by all participants. In the opinion of some, although social and economic elements in development are inherently inseparable, for analytical purposes the distinction is a useful one.

222. There was general agreement, however, that social programmes in the various sectors, such as health, education, housing and social welfare, are interrelated and that their planning should therefore be carefully co-ordinated. At the same time, it was indicated by some participants that these social sectors are not any more related to each other than to other so-called economic sectors. In any case, the relationships between these social sectors were neither unique nor sufficiently clear-cut to merit their separate consideration as a group at the stage of determination of priorities and allocations or at the stage of implementation. In particular, the social sectors need not be combined within a central planning agency in a joint division. New integrated machinery for social development planning is neither necessary nor desirable. More important than the organizational question is the availability of planners willing and able to plan for the social sectors in the context of overall social and economic development.

223. These views were, however, opposed by other participants. In their opinion, the traditional social sectors have a sufficiently common basis to merit their joint consideration, which would be reflected in co-ordination arrangements for social sectors in the central planning agency. This is particularly so since, in practice, much of the planning in the countries of this region at this time is sectoral planning. Integration at the level of "social development" as a whole might therefore be necessary as a transitional phase before the overall integration could be achieved.

224. There was general agreement with respect to the importance of co-ordination between the different social programmes, particularly at the implementation stage. Particular mention was made of the need to develop inter-sectoral approaches which cut across the various social sectors such as planning of children's needs, community development, river valley development projects, physical planning and planning by end-user categories.

225. The Group concluded that it is not possible at this stage to recommend to Governments what share of national resources should be allocated to this or that sector, although it noted that, in the case of education, the Education Ministers Conference held at Tokyo in 1962 had indicated on a long-term basis the proportion of GNP to be devoted to education, provided the rate of economic growth enables the country to afford it. In the countries of the region, objective and universally-applicable criteria for allocation of resources are lacking. In general, social projects

involving a low foreign exchange component, low recurring costs, low requirements of technical personnel and those which at a low cost benefited a large number of people quickly, might be given priority. As a general principle, it was also agreed that, other things being equal, social programmes which have a more direct or immediate effect on productivity and economic development should receive priority. This, however, presupposed the ability to measure the direct and indirect economic benefits accruing from them.

226. This is a subject on which two widely divergent views were expressed. In the opinion of some participants, although the measurement of costs and benefits of social programmes presents some difficulties, the problem is not insuperable. It was felt that efforts should be made to quantify and measure social development projects, and that rigorous methods of economic analysis should be applied to the social programmes. It was argued that economic analysis of social programmes in terms of costs and benefits may indicate, as has happened in the case of education, that they have a larger impact on production than is commonly supposed. Social sectors, with the divergent objectives they imply cannot be effectively related to the overall development plan without some kind of a common denominator or monetary valuation or general index. Moreover, measurement at least in a rudimentary form, is necessary so that action on a scale commensurate with the magnitude of social problems can be organized. It is possible to measure or calculate the economic cost of neglect of social fields, i.e. future economic cost of present social neglect, as well as benefits of social programmes in terms of what people are willing to pay for them.

227. It was argued by others, however, that since social programmes are often ends in themselves, they need not be measured in economic terms. Moreover, the type of comprehensive data needed to show the direct and indirect effects of social sectors on economic development are not now available. While, therefore, it is in some cases possible to compute the cost of social programmes, it is not always possible to do so in the case of benefits.

228. The Group was unanimous in emphasizing the need for accurate and comprehensive information for the planning of social sectors. It recognized that there is a substantial lack of both qualitative and quantitative data required for planning purposes. Research is therefore needed at many levels—data-collecting in terms of statistics and censuses, technical research undertaken by particular departments, fundamental research by universities, and research on evaluation of performance. The most pressing need, however, is for applied socio-economic research which will have a direct bearing on planning and policy. In planning the research, it was necessary to bring within its range problems of both local and national character. A prerequisite for this kind of research is the creation of appropriate data-collecting machinery and the devising of some method to utilize effectively research conducted in universities and private institutions in relation to the work done in government departments. It is necessary to

adopt an inter-disciplinary approach and to develop greater interest among sociologists in the problem of measurement.

229. The Group emphasized, however, that since resources, especially in terms of qualified social scientists and other personnel, are in short supply, priorities for research should be most carefully determined. The statistical and research requirements should be, as far as possible, limited to those primarily related to planning and policy. Research should be concentrated in this field on methods and techniques which will help to develop criteria for resource allocation. Full use should be made of the already existing body of knowledge and research findings which are in many cases available but not widely known. Research should not only be geared to planning but also itself planned carefully so that duplication and wastage were avoided. Research which does not have a direct and immediate relationship to policy need not be undertaken by the governments. Since time is of the essence, it is not desirable to defer planning until all the data become available.

230. Closely related to the problem of data is that of personnel. It was noted that the countries of this region lack trained personnel at all levels, but that there is a relatively greater shortage of planners in specific social fields such as health, education, housing and social welfare, who possess knowledge of the techniques of overall planning. For this reason, economists play a large role in the planning process and machinery. Other problems arise from the fact that existing personnel are often not provided appropriate remuneration or amenities, or are wasted. In social fields, misunderstanding also arises between administrative and technical personnel.

231. The Group attached the highest importance to personnel training in the various fields of social development. In order to conserve resources, a team approach to training wherever practicable might be adopted. Training is necessary at all levels, but particularly at the middle and higher levels where the relationship to economic development is most direct. There is no imminent danger, however, of an over-supply of personnel since trained personnel in themselves constitute a nucleus for further development. The avoidance of wastage in training is very important. It was suggested that training be provided in accordance with actual need, that the right type of people be selected for training, and that, once trained, personnel be deployed in situations where their training will be useful.

232. The Group was very concerned about the problem of the link between planning and implementation. It noted that, in many instances, plans are formulated but not implemented; under-expenditure in social fields is often the rule. In some countries, planners do not have effective means of knowing fully what has actually happened to the plans in the course of implementation. In this connection, the question was raised as to whether planners or the central planning agency might not have a more direct association (in terms of inspection or control) with implementing

agencies. Other participants, however, viewed this as dangerous and as having far-reaching implications, since planning was generally an independent advisory function. Even where the planning agency is a regular department of the government, implementation has ultimately to be the responsibility of the ministries and departments concerned. It was suggested that success in implementation can be ensured or promoted by having as the head of the planning agency the Prime Minister or the head of the government. Moreover, the annual plans and budgets can also be used as instruments of indirect control over implementation. It was generally agreed that the planning agency should in any case have within it, or available to it, sound evaluation machinery giving continuous and comprehensive information on performance and implementation.

233. The Group agreed that conflicts between social and economic considerations underlying the development programmes often appear only in the short run, particularly in the early stages of growth, and that, in the long run, the objectives of social and economic programmes are identical. In this context, long-term or perspective planning is especially important in relation to the social sectors of development.

234. The Group gave particular importance to the possibilities of non-monetized investment in social fields such as housing in order to supplement the other resources. In this connexion, it was suggested that it would be useful to divide social programmes into those which impose a heavy burden on resources, those which only involve trained personnel in particular skills, and those such as welfare services which do not involve a large financial allocation. Further, a distinction should be made between those services which compete for scarce resources and those which involve only a transfer of resources through the fiscal system.

Chapter VI

REGIONAL CO-OPERATION

235. The Group felt that regional co-operation in terms of research, training and general exchange of information in the field of social development planning needs considerable expansion.

236. In the field of research, one aim of regional co-operation should be to select a common set of problems, to evolve a common set of concepts and definitions and to collaborate in research projects of common interest. Research on criteria for allocation of resources, on methods of reducing the cost of social investment (for example in the field of building materials), on the interaction of economic and social factors in development at various levels, on the techniques of social programming, on the application of cost/benefit analysis to projects in the social field on a case study basis, and on projections of human resources needs, is particularly needed on a regional basis, since no one country by itself has the required comparative data or research evidence to provide an adequate basis of policy.

237. The Group felt the need for some kind of regional clearing arrangements for exchange of information and specialists in the fields relevant to social development planning. It was suggested that a directory of research centres or institutes active in the field of social planning in this region be compiled by ECAFE in co-operation with UNESCO; also that an annotated bibliography on social development planning containing information on research done or in progress, whether in this region or outside it, be compiled by the agencies concerned. Appropriate revisions of this compilation as well as other material relating to social development planning could be issued in the form of a periodical by ECAFE or UNESCO. The existing services of the UNESCO Research Centre on Social and Economic Development in Southern Asia in this field were noted.

238. Training in the fields of social development and in social planning generally, especially at the higher levels, was also mentioned as another area which tends itself to regional co-operation. In this connexion, it was suggested that the Asian Institute for Economic Development and Planning as well as ECAFE should consider the inclusion or expansion of training and research in the field of social development planning.

239. The Group felt that it is vital for the United Nations and the specialized agencies to work in close co-ordination. It is necessary to ascertain the total requirements for action by the United Nations family in the social development fields, so that the various agencies can make their contribution towards meeting them, each within its respective field of competence. In this manner, the joint efforts will contribute to the solution of the total problem.

240. Equally important is the division of labour among various countries in this region in order to achieve accelerated development and avoid duplication of efforts. Prototype projects can be started in countries which offer special advantages and the results shared by all. Moreover, the Group strongly endorsed the proposal that a group of countries with common problems and needs might begin to think in terms of co-ordinated and joint planning both in the allocation of resources and determination of priorities as well as in programme implementation. A programme for the control and eradication of infectious and communicable diseases in one country, for example, would suffer a setback if a neighbouring country did not carry out a similar programme.

241. The Group concluded that periodic regional meetings of policy-makers concerned with social development planning would be extremely helpful for exchanging information and clarifying issues. The hope was expressed that meetings similar to the present one might be held at appropriate dates in the future. The scope of such meetings may be widened to cover other major problems in the field of social development planning.

ANNEX

LIST OF DATA REQUIRED FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

1. *Population*

Main population data at least for the last two censuses including birth and death rates, population projections, internal and external migration and basic facts concerning literacy and schooling (ethnic, national and linguistic groups).

2. *Educational and school statistics*

Present organization and structure of the educational system. Data and time series for all levels (primary, secondary, etc.) and types of education (village schools, complete primary, agriculture, nursing, technical, general secondary, etc.), with details on the distribution by regions, and administrative divisions of the country, and by urban and rural areas for the following:

- (a) Schools (administrative units): Number of schools, classified according to whether public or private; number of grades, number of teachers and number of pupils enrolled.
- (b) Staff: Number of teachers for primary and post-primary schools classified by sex, age, qualifications; number of teachers of technical subjects; number of inspectors, supervisors, other administrative personnel and auxiliary personnel connected with education (present situation and projected needs).
- (c) Pupils: Number of pupils enrolled, classified by sex, age and grade (for the primary and secondary level).
- (d) Pupil-teacher ratios (frequency distribution) and average daily attendance, in primary schools.
- (e) Number of students entering school and graduated during the year, by sex, for all level and types.
- (f) Number of students enrolled in higher education, by sex and field of study. If possible, estimates concerning students studying abroad.
- (g) Data on adult education and allied fields.
- (h) School buildings and equipment: classified into government-owned, rented, etc. Present location of schools, capacity, physical conditions; including sanitary environment; estimated immediate needs, projected long-term needs. Facilities such as garden, workshop, etc.

3. *School Finance*

Receipts by sources; expenditure by level and type of education—both capital and recurring. Unit costs for different types and levels of education.

4. *National Income; Public Finance and General Economic Situation:*

A. Latest data and time series on:

- i. Gross domestic product or national income;
- ii. Gross domestic product by industrial origin;
- iii. Expenditure on gross domestic product (private consumption, government consumption, gross fixed capital formation, increase in stocks, exports, (less) imports);
- iv. Budget and accounts of central and local governments;
- v. Index numbers of consumers prices, wholesale prices, wages, building costs, etc.

B. Information on agricultural production, industrial production, services.

C. Annual economic surveys; development plans and their implementation, detailed industrial plans, especially those requiring technical manpower.

5. *Manpower*

Occupational distribution of the population—sexwise; manpower projections; data concerning degree and nature of unemployment.

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